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NOTE—Readers are reminded that the relative order of articles in the *Journal*, does not necessarily carry implications as to the comparative merits of contributions. The *Journal* is equally grateful to all its contributors, past, present, and potential, for their co-operation.

Thoughts in Season

ERNST KOCH

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(Author's summary.—The arts, and especially literature, must be emphasized rather than de-emphasized in the curriculum if we are not to debase the school as an ethical institution.)

THAT we are in the midst of sweeping social changes is obvious beyond challenge. The world of tomorrow will not be the world we have known. While it would be quixotic to predict that it will be a better world, and foolish to assume so merely because we desire it, we do know that the face of destiny bears a marked resemblance to the character and disposition of man—education is predicated on this basic assumption—and that, therefore, the nature of the world of tomorrow will depend, more than on any one single factor, on the spirit and tendencies of those institutions primarily responsible for the character and disposition of man.

Since the schools have become the primary developmental agency in our modern world, it is axiomatic that the future of society will more than ever before be determined by them. (To those who still think that this is mere educational advertising, we need only cite the role of "education" in the totalitarian nations.) If we would have a better world tomorrow, we must today have educators who, with all due regard for the vocational obligations of the school, accept and do solemnly affirm the *ethical* (broadly humanitarian) responsibility of the school as its *major* concern.

It is necessary to emphasize this more particularly now than ever before, because of the progressively accelerated trend toward purely vocational education. For, while it is undoubtedly necessary, because of the war, to curtail somewhat those studies which are not of immediate technical importance, discontinuing the humanistic subjects or relegating them to a position of inferiority is a policy which, at this or any other time, is untenable. If we sponsor it, we tacitly accept a philosophy that holds ethical education to be a luxury that should be dispensed with in times of stress.

Obviously, such a policy would emasculate the school as an ethical force and reduce it to a factory for the production of physical and mental robots. The total effect of this on our immediate and ultimate post-war world would negate our noblest sacrifices.

To prevent the degeneration of our educational institutions and the subsequent collapse of our humanitarian front we must, especially in the colleges, return once more to a proper regard for those subjects which, in the past decade or two, have had to yield ground to the advocates of vocational expediency. This does not necessitate a return to the rigid "liberal

arts" curriculum that was designed to prepare—somewhat mechanically it must be admitted—teachers and preachers. It does mean, however, arousing and maintaining an honest concern for the ethical responsibility of the school. We must once again feature those subjects highest in *human* content, feature them with a view towards supplementing religion, towards clarifying and individualizing those ethical laws that help man transcend the bestial. We must recognize the potential force of philosophy and the arts—literature, music and the graphic and plastic arts—both so essentially related that we may simply refer to them collectively as "art," in the *human* development of the individual and make these subjects the *core* of the curriculum.

This point of view has, of course, been widely challenged by a very large and vocal group that has never had the benefit of a real introduction to art and, consequently, sees it as something highly artificial and of doubtful value in a modern curriculum. Unfortunately, educational policy in the dictator countries gives us indisputable though tragic proof of the importance of these humanizing subjects which have come to be regarded as frills by so many in our own country.

No more eloquent testimony to the formative value of the "liberal arts" can be given than a reminder of the attention they receive in totalitarian schools, and that it is in respect to these subjects *and only to these* that the schools of the dictator nations have become inferior. The German schools, for example, have surpassed even their former excellence in vocational training and in pure and applied science. The mechanized materialism of a totalitarian machine could afford no debasement of this phase of education. Only the ethically formative subjects have been violated (*though not de-emphasized!*), for they and they alone could determine whether the individual would become a critical analyst of social truth (a plutocratic—or democratic—"degenerate") or a willing and even eager instrument for exploitation.

Thus, instead of undermining the humanistic subjects in the curriculum, the dictators have given them new support. For they have seen what has not been evident enough here, i.e. that art has a very real bearing on and connection with life, that it is not a copy of it but a higher form, a sublimation of it. And by their distortion (!) of it they have acknowledged that in art alone one finds patent proof of the universal brotherhood of man.

This being the case, does it not behoove us now, and quickly, to re-emphasize rather than de-emphasize art in the curriculum, especially when we are so concerned with maintaining our ideals and building for a better, more understanding world? For, transcending national characteristics and differences, art alone reflects essentially the basic similarity of all humanity, man's groping, troubled life, his loneliness, his need for beauty, warmth and light.

It is perhaps not possible or even feasible at this time to give as much emphasis in the curriculum to art as might be ideally desirable. But it is possible—both now and later—to maintain the security and integrity of literature courses: American, English, and foreign language. For literature, of all art forms, is perhaps that one easiest to interpret and correlate with our own lives, that one capable of yielding the highest ethical returns. The Bible, we should not forget, is a book—and a book of literature at that.

In the great literary works of any people we can see our own patterns of behavior under every conceivable circumstance. We can see there our own confusion, fear and impotence, our ugliness and brutality, but also our potential strength and beauty and generosity. Literature allows us to see our own actions, ideals and ambitions in relief. It answers many of our human questions and subtly yet inexorably annotates our thoughts and deeds. More than that, it enables the student to observe and study the inter-play of those forces that make life good or hideous.

In consequence thereof, the true student of literature (not exclusively the scholar, but anyone who studies literature with serious intent) can never be intolerant, rate himself too high or appraise another too low. Arrogance is impossible in the face of the wonder of life. Intolerance can find no hold on a mind that has followed the continual inter-play of reason and emotion, realism and romanticism in all eras and among many peoples and has seen the human constant underlying all.

In conclusion, let us realize two things: (1) that the curricula which are now being adopted will more than likely remain dominant for a long time to come, and that we must not, therefore, prune hastily and uncritically; (2) that if we do not wish to become brutalized by all-out war, we can not allow ourselves or future generations to lose contact with the ideals which we still profess and without which life would be devoid of all higher meaning; *we must not cease to think of the school as primarily an ethical institution.*

A noted contemporary musicologist has expressed a thought with reference to art that has direct significance for us in education. "Strict realism is especially evident in the secondary, accidental aspects of art, and usually maintains itself in these aspects. Art with a higher destiny must rid itself of realism, but realism inevitably reappears when the guiding faith and idea of that art is on the wane." For, by substituting the words "vocation-alism" for "realism" and "education" for "art," we have a warning which, in its *implications*, is as immediate as it is historically sound.

The Problem of Selecting a Foreign Language

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(Author's summary.—The well-known modern languages are still good choices for the pupil planning to take a linguistic course.)

THE present war has definitely directed the attention of mankind to the need for a wholesome association between nations, regardless of their location. Physical barriers and boundaries no longer exist as far as a matter of time is concerned. It takes today only a matter of hours to cross an expanse between the most distant parts of the globe. The development of aviation has become so astounding that any prediction as to future possibilities would only appear fantastic, and yet one fact appears certain: the world has become and will become an even more common meeting ground, whether in war or in peace. Nations must learn to speak and respect the languages of other nations. No common language as yet exists, but it is not at all improbable that certain well-known languages of today may eventually become international for commercial and political purposes. Local dialects will scarcely disappear for years to come; language changes occur only gradually.

The demand for those individuals who are able to speak more than one language will, no doubt, continue to increase. The spread of American military and civil forces at present has accentuated the need for foreign language training. The frequently repeated statement, "Isolationism is something of the past" is as applicable to languages as it is to economic and political fields. Some few months ago Dr. Arthur Cutts Willard, President of the University of Illinois, spoke directly to this point as he addressed a meeting of Illinois high school teachers. "This is going to be a small world after the war," Dr. Willard stated, "and if we do not know the other man's language, nor understand his background, things are going to be in a sorry state."

New language courses are already appearing in American schools. Dr. George D. Stoddard, Commissioner of Education of the State of New York, called attention not long ago to the fact that already such courses as "Arabic, Burmese, Chinese, Dutch, Finnish, Modern Greek, Hindustani Hungarian, Icelandic, Japanese, Korean, Kurdish, Malay, Mongolian, Pashtu, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, Siamese, and Turkish"¹ had been started in American universities. Furthermore, Dr. Stoddard added, "These languages, and others more familiar to American students, are

¹ Stoddard, George D. "Frontiers for Youth," address given at St. Lawrence University June 8, 1942. Published in *School and Society*, Vol. LVI: 227-230 (Sept. 19, 1942).

essential in the program of international education. . . . A thorough knowledge of language is an open door to the understanding of people's minds and hearts; it reveals what they know and do and fear and trust. It offers a bridge from our way of life to theirs—a bridge that can support two-way traffic." The problem which confronts the student of today is not only the question of deciding if a foreign language should be studied, but also what language should be selected.

With the introduction of a considerable number of unfamiliar modern languages into the curriculum, it is becoming increasingly difficult for students to feel assured that they are in a position to select those languages which later will be most valuable to them. Since normally several years of study are necessary to master a language, any selection made must be made upon the basis of future needs. Thus, at best, the individual can only try to analyze present conditions and then try to anticipate such needs. The present demand for linguists in certain lesser-known fields may have a tendency to give such areas an importance out of proportion to later needs. A careful evaluation is very necessary before a selection is made. When any individual has an unusual interest in a country where an unfamiliar language is spoken, it is quite natural for him to consider preparation in the language of that country, especially if he plans active work in that area later in life. Probably no better guide could be used for making a selection. There will, no doubt, continue to be a limited demand for individuals trained in these lesser-known languages, however, students should recognize the limited areas in which such languages are spoken and understand that for many individuals to prepare in such fields may be inadvisable. For most students whose vocations are still doubtful, it may be better to plan to meet general conditions by becoming well grounded in at least one of the better-known modern languages. Then later, if other fields are needed they can be studied with an economy in time resulting from previous training. Regardless of eventual travel or location, there will be considerable opportunity for the use of the better-known languages. It is at times difficult for us to comprehend the extent to which these languages have spread throughout the world. There are certainly few parts of the world where French, English, German, or Spanish do not serve as some form of communication. A short time ago an American boy in military service in New Caledonia wrote home saying that life there would not be at all unpleasant if he could only speak French and thus converse with the natives.

It is natural for an individual to regard his language with a certain degree of pride. If he feels that he must sacrifice it to communicate with a stranger, he does so usually with a certain degree of resentment. Therefore those individuals planning to work in foreign areas should recognize this condition and capitalize upon it to the fullest. It is probable that some foreign powers, among them some of our foes at present, have recognized

this trait and have trained their representatives accordingly. A language reflects in part the characteristics of the people who speak it. The use of interpreters has often been unsatisfactory for it frequently leads to misunderstandings; the result depends so very much upon the viewpoint of the individual interpreting. Too, some expressions do not lend themselves readily to accurate translations. In diplomatic circles an interpreter may influence the policy of an entire nation by the simple means of shifting an emphasis. Representatives to foreign powers should at least be interested enough in their work to acquire facility in expressing themselves among the people where they are sent. A sharp criticism appeared in a news article a few weeks ago concerning a governmental representative who had lived many years in a foreign state, but apparently had made little or no effort to learn the language of the people among whom he lived. The article concluded by pointing out that it was not unexpected that this individual had never won the sincere cooperation and respect of the people to whom he had been sent.

The problem of selecting a foreign language is today really no different than the problem confronting individuals preparing to enter vocational fields. Modern industry requires that a man specialize. In medicine or engineering an individual would scarcely expect to become proficient in all branches of those fields. And yet specialization does not restrict the future development of the individual; it really has trained him in the best techniques of development. When a man has specialized in one area he is usually able to adjust himself to the requirements of related areas with a limited amount of further preparation. Changes in war industry have shown this repeatedly. Knowing the direct means of approaching and mastering the field, the man is able to adjust himself with a considerable saving in time and effort over his previous preparation. Although an analogy proves very little, it can scarcely be denied that a similar situation exists in the language fields. A student may learn a foreign language and later find that a different language meets his needs more directly. His mastery of the second language under normal conditions and with a language of equal difficulty, should take considerably less time than a mastery of the first. The learning of the first language gave the necessary experience in approach and mastery of skills so that an approach to the second could be made in a more direct manner. Too, there are a number of common elements in most languages which when learned once can be applied later in other instances. Of course maturity and extent of experience must be considered as limiting factors in such an experience, but any teacher who has had pupils in his classes who have previously learned another foreign language, will recognize this fact.

As the world becomes more complex the individual's selection of a vocation will continue to be a problem, for few individuals find themselves in a position early enough in their training period where they are able to

choose a field with the positive conviction that they are entering the vocation best suited for them. Political and economic factors will probably continue to regulate the eventual placement of many individuals. The chance that enters into such a situation must likewise enter into the selection of a foreign language. Teachers are called upon to advise pupils regarding the languages which will be of most value to such individuals, but there are few objective tests which are of assistance in such instances. Language aptitude tests are of little assistance, so any decision made will be largely a matter of personal judgment. Pupil interest and ability are, of course, paramount factors to be considered. Beyond this the selection of any of the well-known modern languages seems to be as sound as any. Certain scientific fields still expect preparation in specific languages, and these facts should be understood by both teacher and pupil. Both might well discuss the global aspect of languages, especially the spread of the language under consideration. Any selection based upon the idea that one language may be easier to learn than another, certainly is not only impractical, but actually ridiculous, from whatever angle it is considered; it does not recognize future needs. The pupil should recognize that if he learns well the first language attempted, it will be a considerable step in the direction of a mastery of a second, if the latter should be needed later. Few individuals would have guessed a few years ago that Russian, Japanese, Chinese and other languages would suddenly appear in college curriculums, nor that there would be a renewed emphasis upon certain other familiar fields of study such as mathematics. In fact, both foreign languages and mathematics were being catalogued upon dusty shelves as "No longer practical in a modern world." But conditions have changed rapidly. In scarcely more than a year mathematics has come very much to the foreground, largely because it has again become practical. Since all world communication is by means of language, the practical angle should not be overlooked by those who are planning to select and study modern foreign languages.

"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"

Foreign Language Grammar and Reflective Thinking

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(Author's summary.—See last paragraph.)

DURING recent years "faculty" psychology, that conception of learning which posits a very general transfer of training, has lost its hold on specialists in methods of teaching foreign languages. Since then little or nothing has been made of the role of reflective thinking in that field, even though the dropping of the notion of mental training through language study has seemed to leave the foreign language teacher at a loss for activities which can help train boys and girls in thinking. This embarrassing situation is made more acute by the general references to training in thinking made by apologists for foreign language study.¹ Such training, where we are able to get at its specific nature, usually turns out to be something like suspension of judgment as to the meaning of a word in reading a passage in Latin, say, where the innumerable possibilities of words like "agere" may well give any reader pause. Or it may involve some similar dilemma caused by an ambiguous case-form. Interlingual semantics (to be discussed later in this article) is another field where training in thinking is said to be going on. Latinists again seem to be the most assiduous practitioners, perhaps because there is need of much work on derivatives in Latin classes.²

It is not my intention to belittle the role of the above-mentioned activities in training for thinking or to discourage teachers from availing themselves of them. For conscious attention to the problem of suspension of judgment on meanings of words in context, on word relationships, and on semantic shift may, through extension to English, high light these activities and influence the thinking of the pupils. On the other hand, progress in learning to read a foreign language (an objective to which we all subscribe) demands that these practices be shortcut by the reader to something like the extent to which the student would do so in reading English. And of course, unless we depend on something like faculty psychology, we cannot assume any great amount of application to general situations in the vernacular without considerable practice, a time-consuming process which may interfere with the accomplishment of the reading objective in the foreign tongue. To be sure, where the English program of the pupil is already

¹ American Classical League: *Classical Investigation*, 60 f. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1924.

² J. Gummere: "Semantics in the Classroom," *Classical Outlook*, XVII, May, 1940, 77.

intelligently working on thinking in many areas of life, the time needed by the foreign language teacher for application in English is less, but then so much the less is the contribution of that teacher to the role of thinking in education.

There are, however, some aspects of teaching foreign languages in which attention to principles of thinking is necessary, illustration in several fields brings clarity, and generalization and application anew are profitable. One place where the relation of language to thought can be brought into relief is the process of translation from the foreign tongue to English. I choose Latin as the language from which to illustrate, for I seriously doubt, on the basis of my experience with conscientious efforts to avoid it, that translation can be completely sloughed off in the early and intermediate stages of learning Latin, quite apart from any consideration of values that might accrue from the process. Boys and girls demand the security of a check-up in their own language. And Latin seems to me to be the language where interlingual semantics is most necessary in secondary schools and colleges.

The use and necessity for interlingual semantics in Latin classes depends on several factors. One is the greater tendency of Latin words to fail to match their various meanings with English derivatives as satisfactorily as do French cognates, for example. We must expect to find "virtus" has broader possibilities than "vertu," that "agere" roams farther afield than "agir," and so (with many exceptions, no doubt) down the line.

The Latin verb "contendere" seems to have as its basic notion the concept of *straining*, from which we derive its two chief meanings as occurring in classical prose, "to contend" and "to hurry." Using this and any number of other words, the Latin class can arrive at some conclusions as to the radical variability of the referents that the same words may have. This is of course a very crude wedge driven into the field of semantics. One might well demand that the more refined and deceptive aspects of word-meanings be treated also. This is possible in translation from the Latin of authors like Cicero, where expressions such as "res publica" not only have rather radical variations but also more subtle distinctions, the rendering of which calls not only for close attention to the context but also brings into play what the class may know of the life and times concerned. We may think of "res publica" as a circle or sphere of meaning divisible into innumerable segments of discrete significations grossly or finely distinguished as the reader's insight permits. Thus, traversing the circumference, we might read off such terms as: *republic, state, government, constitution, the established agencies of the government, statesmanship, public life, politics, the common interest*, etc. The application to English may be the discussion of the speaker's or writer's point of view and from that the light thrown on the intended meaning by such facts plus subsequent exploration of similar phenomena within the experience of the class. Examples in English that might well be introduced

are: socialist, communist, anarchist, radical, etc. This attack on word-concept adjacency³ would ordinarily proceed on two fronts, one where we explore the gradual differentiations of meaning included within broad terms, and one where we explore the suggestions brought to mind by the use of certain words but not necessarily implicit in those words (connotation). The degree to which this work would be carried on would depend on the suitability of the material, the level of ability of the class, and the extent to which similar work in other areas in the school or college would render it unnecessary in foreign language work.

Since it may be objected that the type of study here described is not grammar in the strict sense, let us see if there is not some approach to the connection between language and thinking from the point of view of language structure. Such an approach is yielded by some of the very dilemmas of language teachers in the course of their classroom work. In Latin we note that the beginner is often puzzled by the apparent inconsistency of the language in saying "*puella bona*" and on the other hand "*agricola bonus*." Or, again, the German student is sometimes at a loss to remember to speak of "*das Mädchen*" and not "*die Mädchen*." In the first case we refer the student to a rule regarding gender, and case, and in the second we refer him to the powerful influence of a suffix which overrides sex in favor of a category called "gender." Whereupon some students persist in remaining puzzled and confused.

It is not my purpose to suggest ways to overcome the difficulty; persistence and variety of attack seem able in time to solve the problem. What I wish to show is that the problem has a general setting that may profitably be explored with the class in working out the solution.

The initial question with students in the discussion of the categories concerned might well be: Why did the Romans say "*agricola bonus*," when we expect them to say "*Agricola bona*" or why do Germans say "*das Mädchen*" when we should expect "*die Mädchen*"? It is the duty of the instructor to point out that people do not usually speak (structurally) on the basis of why and wherefore, but rather to show that, given a language of not completely regular pattern, grammarians organize it as regularly as they can for learning purposes and give names to the categories they construct. Noticing in this instance that virtually all creatures of the male sex to which the word "*bonus, bona, bonum, etc.*" is applied use the form "*bonus*," they called this group of words "*masculine*." Similarly, organizers of German called words masculine to which the form "*der*" of the article is applied in the nominative singular. Perhaps the root of all the trouble lies in the choice of label for the genders, for the student is troubled by the

³ I owe the expression "word-adjacency" and much of the thought it carries with it to Professor Victor Ketcham of the Department of Speech of the Ohio State University (private communication).

fact that things without sex are often "masculine" or "feminine," and occasionally even things called "neuter" have sex. In any case, the way is now open to point out in the case of "agricola" that even though 99 words out of 100 are feminine if they end in -a in the nominative singular, there is no compulsion on the 100th. Conversely, while the German "das Mädchen" means something female, it is treated grammatically as parallel with other "das"-words. Again, it is the *label* that has misled us.

In the history of logic the syllogism has an important place, and though its importance has declined relatively in the face of new devices for truth seeking and sustained criticism of the syllogism itself, it still has some validity for exploring the accuracy of one's thought and expression. Its crux lies in the proper distribution of the middle term, as in:

1. We are at war with the Germans.
2. The Germans are giving orders to Frenchmen.
3. We are at war with Frenchmen.

In French the problem of teaching the partitive usages can be coupled with the chance to work with the syllogism. The inclusiveness of the expression "Les Français" can be contrasted with the discrimination involved in "Des Français," to wit:

1. Nous faisons la guerre contre les Allemands.
2. Les Allemands donnent des ordres aux Français.
3. Nous faisons la guerre contre les Français. (The conclusion follows, broadly speaking.)
1. Nous faisons la guerre contre les Allemands.
2. Les Allemands donnent des ordres à des Français.
3. Nous faisons la guerre contre des Français. (the conclusion follows, but with an important difference.)

It is quite true that the interpretation of French sentences, with "some" and "all" invariably expressed, would result in awkward English, judged by present standards, but the habit of asking oneself in all cases which word would apply is one that has been suggested in classes on logic and which would certainly improve thinking for all of us. Of course, some time would have to be devoted to application in English, but no great amount of time need be lost, since apposite examples for teaching the French principle would be furnished by sentences chosen for their value in teaching the logical principle.

The student of Spanish and French is often puzzled by the fact that the comparative and superlative of adjectives are the same in form and correspond to English expressions only by virtue of defining context, notably "un" and "el", "un" or "le". Not in itself a difficult point to learn after the initial surprise, the grammar of the comparative and the superlative offers a chance to explain the original category of the dual number (as in Greek nouns and verbs) and its gradual abandonment in the history of western

languages, with some exceptions. One of these exceptions is our English system of "big, bigger, biggest," etc. Another exception of much greater moment is our traditional habit of thinking in dualistic terms: all or nothing, white versus black, France versus Germany, etc. While not within the field of grammar, it is not out of place in a school giving liberal and general education for the teacher of foreign languages to point out that the modernity of the French use of "un plus grand" and "le plus grand" might well be paralleled by a more inclusive list of possibilities than our passé either-or thinking.⁴

There are difficulties of vocabulary in foreign languages which have implications for logic. Such are the Latin "castra," a plural form with singular idea (agreement is plural); the German word "Geschwister," "brothers and sisters" or the rare "siblings," which counts unlike things together; the English "my cousins" like "Geschwister," but not like "meine Vettern und Kusinen." What can be counted together depends on the means at hand in any given language; most of the awkwardness comes, as above, in cases involving two sexes, but some come from confusion or transition between singular and plural, as in "castra," or English "politics," now a singular word. Logically, words like "politics" and "castra" can be dealt with by showing how a plural can gradually attain a collective unity which leads to the idea of the singular. This means, applying the idea more generally, that aggregations can be taken as units for some purposes but not for others. Adding cows and steers together confuses our attempts to forecast a milk yield, but it may be necessary in forecasting the need for shipping space to the market. And so our word "cattle." But "cattle" does not have any general singular; in our culture, when we deal with a specific instance, we are in urgent and immediate need of knowing the sex, and almost all practical situations call for that knowledge. Counting, in other words, involves an understanding of similarity or difference and an awareness of them in forming aggregates.

Certain aspects of grammar call, ironically, for attention to the fact that grammar is not always logical, to our way of thinking, however justified a given linguistic phenomenon may be in the light of historical grammar. Such illogicality is exemplified in the agreement of adjectives in Romance and German, where position would be enough to show to what noun an adjective belonged. Historically, we can say that Latin provided for devices of style which utilized agreement by ending and which separated adjective and noun without risk of hiding the agreement. Again, the subjunctive, with its teacher-designated status of "doubt," "uncertainty," "contrary-to-fact," also enjoys the double distinction of being difficult to explain by any such terms as can characterize the uses of the subjunctive throughout, yet not

⁴ A good criticism of two-valued orientation is to be found in I. Lee: *Language Habits in Human Affairs*, chap. VI, 85-114. New York: Harper, 1941.

do so for any indicative uses and of offering a learning problem of some complexity to the student. Taking the historical view again, we attempt with some success to explain by reference to the Latin that dependent subjunctives arise from independent subjunctives by the evolution of subordination from coordination, as in: "Timeo; ne veniat:" "I am afraid; I hope he does not come," which becomes "timeo ne veniat:" "I am afraid he is coming."

The idiom is another phase of language which calls for explanation to the student, and here too, explanation seems to be historical rather than logical. To be sure, we have a distinction between real idioms recognized as such by natives (such are frozen expressions like "Que faire?" "Comment ça va?" "Guten Morgen," "Wenn dem so ist,") and idioms of translation ("Me gusta," "Teneo memoria," "Mich hungert," "Il s'en souvient"). In idioms of translation we can substitute as in any free expression and can often explain by revising our translation to parallel the original or can show similar formations. Examples of parallelism are: "Me gusta" equals "It pleases me." "Teneo memoria" equals "I keep in mind"; "Mich hungert" equals "It makes me hungry"; "Il s'en souvient" equals "he reminds himself of it." There can be no pretence that the suggested paraphrases represent historical processes in all cases; "Il s'en souvient" is surely derived from an impersonal expression. An example of similarity is furnished by the German "Er schämt sich über—" for which I do not readily find a parallel in English but the expression is in a series with "Er rühmt sich wegen—," "He prides himself on—."

The use of historical explanation (with the limitation that students have too weak a factual background to grasp the explanation as completely as we could wish) and the overriding of history on other occasions can point the moral that analogies, and derivations, and all manner of devices may be used scientifically if they serve to clarify, to demonstrate, and to make retainable. Thus logic justifies itself sometimes by variety rather than by consistency, and its test is not consistency but practical results.

Another illogicality which must be brought out in foreign language teaching is dependent on the probability that no case in Aryan languages has a clear-cut single original function.⁵ Hence in the genitive in Latin we have possession, object, subject, partitive, etc., and similar functions extend to the modern heirs of the genitive in Romance and to the true genitive in German. So, too, with the dative and its modern representatives. Since the "of" connective for the genitive and the "to" or "for" connective for the dative usually serve interpretation adequately, the composite nature of the cases (or prepositions) is not too readily seen. It is when the preferred English translation device breaks down that some notion of the confusion

⁵ O. Jespersen: *Philosophy of Grammar*, 180. London: Allen and Unwin, 1924.

within the cases enters the minds of the students. When "*sola via salutis*" equals "the only road *to* safety," "*signum incipiendi*" means "the signal *for* commencing," "*Il est aimé de tous*" means "He is liked *by* all," "*Er interessiert sich für die Politik*" equals "he is interested *in* politics," the conclusion must eventually come to the students that some linguistic signs, whether case ending, preposition, or what not, may be multivalued, and conversely that there may be more than one way of expressing a relationship. The problem and its attendant analysis is a reinforcement of the position of the semanticist that the meaning of a word or linguistic element is dependent on the context in most cases if not all. Since thinking occurs through language, its quality is dependent on that of the language.

Turning from specific problems to more general considerations (without any illusions that the list of specific problems with logical implications has been exhausted), we can see certain overall features of grammar learnings which have outcomes in logical principles. Almost all new grammar learnings have elements of old information within them. Thus, the comparative and superlative of the adjective in Latin and in German repeat the endings which show agreement with a noun; verb forms in different tenses repeat endings already learned in earlier tenses. It not only pays to capitalize on the old information by calling the attention of the students to it, but it is also sensible to show that this is a learning process of universal scope; we learn new things through comparison with familiar things, and we learn to distinguish between superficially similar phenomena. The foreign language classroom is a suitable place in which to make the student conscious of the learning process and to make him aware of the general application of the laws of learning.

It is quite possible to acquaint the student with the process of formulating rules (generalizations) by allowing him to do so himself. In this way he traces again the path taken by earlier grammarians who have tried to organize language learning for him. He can often experience instances of the tentative statement modified by new situations and so learn to revise generalizations in the light of new facts. This process must be made conscious, and emphasis must be laid on the tentativeness of the judgment, the constant need for revising thinking. In the end, too, the teacher will have to give his own comprehensive rule based on reading and experience. But the best learning and that most susceptible of generalization is the learning that comes from a working-out by the student, not that which is passively received from another. And out of this process of formulating one's own rules would come, too, some realization that the organization of knowledge depends in good part on the purpose which that knowledge is to serve. Thus a given body of knowledge might be organized in several ways, depending on the use to which it shall be put or for whom organized. This analysis of the problem of organization might well be discussed with the

students so that they might have the benefit of conscious verbalization.⁶ This inductive approach to grammar⁷ presupposes that reading is antecedent to grammar study, for the inductive method in the sense here outlined must eschew book answers till the students have formulated their own.

There is at least one important implication of this training in formulating generalizations within the language field. If the student is aware of the inductive process involved in building a foreign language grammar he can be brought to see that grammar and vocabulary in English are likewise inductively summed up in grammars and dictionaries, especially if foreign language work is reinforced by some study of the history of the language. With the inevitable changes in language, grammar and vocabulary show development and appear different at different epochs. The student must then realize that statements about grammar and vocabulary are not prescriptive but descriptive, that usage is the determiner, not the dictum of some student of the language, however great a scholar he may be. This realization should make the student more responsive to the possibility of change in language, less susceptible to the argument of "bad" grammar, with its consequent narrowness of viewpoint. This issue is rife in English teaching today, and its importance is obvious.

This brief list of possibilities for discussing reflective thinking in foreign language classes in connection with necessary work, with application in and out of the immediate area of study, can no doubt be extended by others. It is meant to be suggestive. Such activities would justify the foreign language teacher in thinking that he contributes to teaching reflective thinking, even though this contribution may be slight by comparison with the possibilities in English. It would not be the sole justification for teaching foreign language, but it would be an added contribution, which is sometimes claimed but often not lived up to in foreign language classes.

⁶ Readers will doubtless be reminded by this discussion of the educational issue of psychological organization versus internal logic. The issue, so baldly stated, is a manufactured one. The real issue in learning is what kind of psychological organization for a given group of learners, etc. I find it difficult to see "internal logic" in anything. Organization seems merely a device with which to cope successfully with a problem. The history of physics shows us all kinds of concepts used to organize information, some of them quite contradictory.

⁷ The steps of which are: (1) Attention directed to judiciously selected and arranged word groups or sentences from the story text just finished; (2) a series of leading questions, compare, contrast, notice, etc., until a hypothetical principle is evoked; (3) immediate verification by completions, mutations, matching, find similar examples, etc. (from Cole, R. D., and Tharp, J. B.: *Modern Languages and Their Teaching*, 299. New York: Appleton-Century, 1937).

Where the Blame Belongs

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(Author's summary.—Further remarks suggested by Major Rogers' article printed in the *Modern Language Journal* of May, 1943.)

IN THE first paragraph of Major Rogers' article occurs this sentence: "The teaching of foreign languages in our country has been a failure." That is a terrible indictment if true, and if true, who is to blame for this deplorable condition? As a foreign language teacher and supervisor in a large school system, I was glad to see the footnote on page 322 by the Managing Editor of the *Modern Language Journal* in which he says: "In his (the Editor's) opinion much of the blame rests not with the teachers but with our educationists and our government. The educationists would oust languages completely or give them flagrantly insufficient time." I am going to use this as my thesis to discuss not only Major Rogers' article but also the one in the same issue of the *Journal* entitled "Indictment or Challenge to Constructive Advance?" (Remarks suggested by Major Rogers' Paper) by William Berrien of the Rockefeller Foundation.

Dr. Berrien says: "The implications of Major Rogers' remarks are that the training in modern languages offered in our schools and colleges does not provide even an adequate starting point for the acquisition of these specialized skills. This is a disconcerting thought, since it means that the foreign language instruction given in our schools and colleges—even when this extends considerably beyond the conventional two-year minimum—does not give the student control of the language for use. It is this general working knowledge of a foreign language which Major Rogers finds deficient as a foundation on which to build the specialized skills now needed for the war effort."

Let us examine the teaching conditions of the average secondary school where a modern foreign language is taught. The school year consists of about 38 weeks. The class period is about 40 minutes and the class meets five times a week, that is three hours and 20 minutes per week or 120 hours per school year. Assume for a moment that the working day is 12 hours, that means that the equivalent of 10 working days per year are devoted to the study of a modern foreign language in which the pupil is supposed to gain "control of the language for use." In the class, of which the pupil is a member, there are from 30 to 45 pupils, depending upon the size of the school, hence his opportunity to *use* the language in class is less than a minute a day, the rest of the time he listens either to the teacher or to the other pupils in the class. He is expected to study outside of class about the

same amount of time he spends in class. Now contrast with this the time devoted to the study and use of English. Even in the field of English our students are severely criticized for lack of control of the language. The time required for specialized training in any subject where English is the medium of communication is much greater than the time allotted to foreign language study. I have been speaking of those so fortunate as to have a chance to start a foreign language in the secondary school—but I have said nothing about the antagonism to the foreign languages on the part of many administrative officers and councillors who use their authority to discourage and even to forbid pupils from electing a foreign language. The curriculum is crowded and every specialized field demands more and more time. The vocational department is highly favored because it is practical. The commercial department is strong because it claims to prepare the pupil for a job. The music and art departments have something to show for their efforts, programs and exhibits. The science department points to "this scientific age" and insists that no boy or girl can afford to go through school without at least a foundation in chemistry and physics. The social science department steps boldly forward and claims that it is the core around which all education grows. English will not allow itself to be shunted aside, after all, good English usage is still the measure of the educated person. Now where is the time to come from for the foreign languages? Those purely cultural subjects that will not help any one to earn a living are mere luxuries for the select few who are going into the professions, according to our educationists. Strangely enough the medical schools still require a premed course in German or French! The engineering colleges still look with favor on the foreign languages!

At long last the armed forces are seeking men with a knowledge of foreign languages and have established intensive foreign language centers because we have not done the job we ought to have done, not because we have not wanted to but because we have been so handicapped, if not handcuffed.

What I want now is to place the blame for our failure where it belongs, on the educationists who have blocked our efforts to get pupils to study foreign languages and when we have been given a chance the time allotment has been too low to enable us to do the job well. That is why we who were so disheartened and dissatisfied with the results of our efforts set up as an attainable goal the ability to read a foreign language although we wanted to teach our pupils to speak and to understand the spoken language, but that cannot be done in the traditional two-year course. If one school year allows the equivalent of ten working days to the study of a foreign language, then two school years allows the equivalent of twenty working days under conditions that hamper us before we start.

Granted that we have no uniformity of methods, granted that many

foreign language teachers are inadequately prepared, granted that our products are not very good, whose fault is it? The schools hire teachers to teach foreign languages who have not been trained in the particular language they have to teach. The principal says: "Miss B., we are going to have a Spanish class next semester and I want you to teach it. I see you had Spanish in college." That teacher did have a little Spanish in college 10 or 15 years ago perhaps, and she goes gingerly to work and does her best. She teaches a Spanish class for two years, but not being able to speak it herself of course she cannot teach her pupils to speak it, so she stresses grammar and translation. The pupils become more and more bored, they are disillusioned and they stop at the end of two years. This is a very fair statement of conditions in many schools. However, there are in the secondary schools well-trained foreign language teachers who speak the language they teach, who have studied in the foreign countries, and who arouse their pupils to a keen interest in the language they are studying and who help the pupils to speak as much as is possible in the limited time allotted. These pupils then leave the secondary school and go to college to continue the foreign language they began in school. But in college they find the emphasis placed on grammar, translation, and composition (which usually means English transposition into the foreign language). There is little or no opportunity to hear or speak the foreign language. There are good courses in the foreign literature. The student has a fine rating and majors in the language. Then he gets a position to teach one or two classes of the foreign language and several classes in fields where he is not too well prepared, so he has to concentrate on the subjects he does not know and he then follows the path of least resistance in teaching the foreign language. It is much easier to teach grammar and translation than to keep on your toes making the foreign language live in the classroom. So a good prospect is spoiled. He might have developed into an excellent live wire foreign language teacher, but there is no one to jog him up—the principal does not know that the teacher is not doing his best. He gets by because he does not fail too many pupils, he is good in routine, he is amenable and cooperative in every way.

There is a vicious circle which can and should be broken and no one is more eager to see that happen than the foreign language teachers themselves. So far they have been helpless to bring about desirable changes, such as a greater time allotment, the use of the foreign language in the classroom, less grammar and translation, a more liberal elective system, and stricter demands on the training of the teacher, in other words, expert teachers and not amateurs, and improved conditions. It is to be hoped that the very proof that foreign language teaching does not measure up to the needs of these days will result in essential changes in order that men and women who devote the necessary time and energy to foreign language study

may become efficient contributors to the war effort and to the postwar needs of our country. It must not be expected, however, that our schools and colleges shall produce technical experts with specialized skills from the mine run of its students, but they can lay the groundwork on which such specialized skills can be built.

Let us, however, place the blame for the present situation where it belongs, not on the foreign language teachers who are only too well aware of the weaknesses in their students, but on the educationists who have either willfully or unconsciously hampered the foreign language program in the schools and colleges.

Before ending this article, however, I want to call attention to the fact that all the criticism directed at the foreign language teachers applies with equal and even greater measure to the teachers of mathematics. They have never been hampered by low time allotment. Mathematics begins in the first grade and continues for 12 or 15 years. Nor is mathematics an elective subject, it is required and favored by all school councillors, and yet the armed forces have found our men deficient in the knowledge of the fundamentals of mathematics and our schools are now offering refresher courses in arithmetic, as well as in physics, chemistry, and English.

Let us be fair to the foreign language teachers and recognize that they have done wonderfully well considering the handicap under which they labor.

How many men who have been out of school for five to ten years can find the cube root of a trinomial or can give offhand the value of π (pi)? Not many can do so and we condone such lapses of memory, but we condemn foreign language teaching because our products do not possess control of the foreign language which they studied for two or three years, some time ago. If you take music lessons for ten years and never practice, you never become a proficient musician. The old saw "practice makes perfect" holds true in the use of a foreign language.

I want to close on a note of optimism. The teaching of foreign languages in this country will not be a failure when such study is given its proper place in the curriculum and allotted a reasonable amount of time to show results. If our government will openly encourage our young people to study the foreign languages which they will need to know for postwar reconstruction, then our educationists will give us the opportunity to show what we can accomplish under fair teaching conditions. We have done a good job before in a great many cases which nobody has advertised but as soon as a few unsatisfactory cases appear all the good ones are forgotten and only the poor ones are conspicuous. Give us a fair chance under reasonable conditions and we will produce satisfactory results, but we "cannot make silk purses out of sows' ears" and we have no magic wand. There is no royal road to the mastery of a foreign language; nothing but hard work and long hours lead to language success.

On Checking Grammar Proficiency in French Classes of the Upper Secondary School Level

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(*Author's summary.*—Teachers of French in the preparatory school are frequently faced with the problem of finding a suitable "check" for the students' proficiency in grammar. The author discusses in this article a publication which he has found to be *one* solution to this problem.)

EVERY preparatory school is faced with the problem of adjusting students from secondary schools of widely-varying standards to those standards of proficiency which it feels should prevail in its own institution. Due to the very variance of training which students of third and fourth year French have undergone in their first and second year courses previous to enrolling in the preparatory school, most teachers are agreed that a fairly rapid review of grammar must be made in these more advanced years of study. I say "a fairly rapid review" because, obviously, the majority of teachers are of the opinion that the greater part of the third and fourth years should not be spent in the study of grammar principles. But, necessarily, the job of the preparatory school is to prepare students for college and, whether we like it or not, both the examinations set by the colleges for admission and those set by the College Entrance Examination Board demand a thorough knowledge of those principles of grammar taught in most schools in the first and second years. And quite rightly so.*

The question then arises as to what should be used along with a text for rapid review as a quick, accurate, and convenient check of the students' work. Much time was spent by the Modern Language Department at Kimball Union writing to various publishers to ascertain just what books of this "checking" type had been published. Since the department here had always relied on its own tests for such a check of the students' work, we were somewhat surprised to find that very little had been done in this field by the various publishing houses. Counting among its correspondents even such publishers as those who specialize in modern language texts, the department found that, although books of the "checking" type for use in

* In the December, 1940, meeting of the Secondary Education Board (Modern Language Committee) held at the Hotel Statler, Boston, it was definitely agreed by the Deans of Admissions of all colleges there represented that the mastery of those principles required by the College Entrance Board's French 2 examination should be required of *all* students, whether they are to pursue the conventional third and fourth year courses or to elect the proposed "alternate reading course."

French One were available, still almost nothing had been produced which was sufficiently advanced or comprehensive to fill its particular need. There has finally come to our attention a "French Drill and Test Pad" published by Henry Holt and Company which seems to offer a solution to this problem of checking grammar.

This work by J. M. Stanton contains exercises and tests on all the necessary grammar principles from the definite article through the subjunctive. The tests are printed on perforated pages so that each test may be detached by the instructor and given to the student when it is felt that the proper review of the principle involved in it has been finished. In this way the student need not see the test until such time as the instructor chooses.

Each test contains a separate grammar principle and the sentences have been well chosen by the author. The topics have been presented in logical and more or less conventional order, conforming for the most part to that found in the most widely used textbooks. The fact that the tests are not accumulative in their subject matter seems to me to be of great importance for it leaves the teacher free to set a subsequent examination on the whole of the material, stressing those points in which his own particular group may have shown itself least proficient.

Finally, the writer must admit that this book was desired for a rapid check in preparation for the April examination set by the College Entrance Examination Board, but may he suggest that the book might be used profitably as a rapid check before a school's final examination in French Two, Three, or Four. The book in question fills a real need! The writer would urge further productivity along this same line!

Some Reflections on the Use of Grammatical Terms

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(Author's summary.—Grammatical terms are not over the heads of high school pupils. They may well be used within reason, but must be properly defined.)

READERS in the literature of foreign language methodology know how frequently we language teachers are scolded for our insistence on the use of grammatical terms. We are told that we must not expect our students, especially in high school, to be familiar with a technical terminology "beyond their grasp" when all they need is, according to Coleman *et al.*, to know how to read—and perhaps to write and speak a little, some would add. This criticism comes not only from our colleagues in science and in social studies and in education, but also from teachers of English and even from some of the foremost writers on language methodology.

I wish to take vigorous exception to this point of view. There is no reason that I can see why language teachers alone must deny themselves the convenience and the time-saving qualities (to say nothing of the efficiency) of a "technical" vocabulary. This has been on my mind for some time, but a recent combination of circumstances has brought me to the point of setting down some reflections on the subject both to clarify my own thoughts and, perhaps, to do the same for others.

One day, not very long ago, I discussed with my group in language methods this very topic. As fate (kind or otherwise) would have it, that very evening my high-school-junior son regaled the family dinner-table with a discourse on *mitosis* and its four stages: *prophase*, *metaphase*, *anaphase*, and *telephase*. It was with pride, pleasure and understanding that he did so, nor did he feel that he was doing anything exceptional nor using terms beyond his grasp. Had this not happened on the very day when the discussion of grammatical terms had taken place, it might have passed unnoticed. But I asked myself, "If the science teacher can speak of *mitosis* instead of *cell-division*, why cannot the language teacher speak of *adjectives*, for example, instead of *descriptive words*?"

In the very fields whence come the most frequent objections to our "technical" terms, high school pupils are called upon to be familiar with the meanings of a specialized vocabulary often much harder to grasp than ours. Here is a ninth grade civics book which mentions the "rights of primogeniture"; which talks of a "modified Australian ballot" without telling what an Australian ballot was like before being modified; which expounds

"rediscounting" without expounding discounting; and which expects the fourteen-year-old pupil to understand the term "standard of living." Or look at this general science book for the same grade where a cursory glance at the index brings out a few choice items among many: anaërobic bacteria, cotyledon, effluvia, haustoria, hypocaust, kinescope, mastication (but chewing is not listed), etc. In fact, the authors found it necessary to provide a glossary where the pupil could find out what the terms meant. But no, the language teacher must not speak of *subject* and *object*, nor of *clauses dependent* or *independent*, nor of *conjunctions* whether *coordinating* or *subordinating*!

But please let me not be misunderstood. I am not criticizing others for using "technical" terms; in fact, I am all for it, and more power to them. The term *mitosis* should be used instead of "cell-division" for there are other kinds of cell-division; it might be better to speak of *mastication* as distinct from *rumination* both of which are ordinarily thought of as *chewing*. (The implications for *adjective-descriptive word* should be obvious.) And where are "technical" terms found more frequently than in the mechanical courses followed in the vocational schools by so many pupils who are said to find languages too difficult? Does the boy in the auto-mechanics course hesitate to speak of *clutch* or of *wrist-pin* or of various valves each with its own special name which I, non-mechanical being that I am, don't know? Does he call a monkey-wrench a "whatsis" or any other of a hundred tools a "thingamabob"? Pupils, it seems to me, get a certain satisfaction out of calling things by their right names, and if in doing so they can flabbergast the adults around them, so much the better,—they feel that they are "in the know."

Of all the various "jargons" to which the pupil is exposed, there is probably none wherein the terms are more meaningful than in grammar. In fact, it is possible to derive a whole course in formal grammar simply from the implications of the terminology. I should not advocate introducing the pronunciation of the Spanish *d* to a class of high school beginners with the statement that sometimes it is pronounced as a voiced linguo-dental plosive and sometimes as a voiced linguo-dental fricative. But, the sound having been taught by illustration and the class having practiced it, such terms, *when properly defined*, might have just as much meaning for the pupils as such a term as *anaërobic*. This, of course, is an extreme example. One is moved to wonder, however, how it is possible to do any amount of grammatical instruction in even the most informal and functional of approaches without using the names of the tools and component parts of language.

The most important thing to remember is that the terms must be defined. When this is done, there is no reason why grammatical terms should be any more beyond the grasp of high school pupils than the terms which they are called upon to learn and use in other subjects. And if it is possible,

through the previous experience of the pupils, to base this definition on the derivation of the terms from their Latin roots, not only do the terms have no terrors but the understanding of them is much clearer than it otherwise might be. A pupil who thinks of a subordinate clause as one which is "under the orders" of another has gone a long way toward understanding the relationship, and when, later on, he thinks of the subjunctive as "joined under" and hence *de-pend-ent* (hanging down from), its mysteries begin to fade away.

Therefore, I for one say let us use our terms within the bounds of reason, but let us be sure to define them so that the definition may carry with it some idea of the function indicated by the term. Erudition means little to the high school pupil, but the names of the tools of language can mean a great deal, and this meaning is certainly not above his level. Do you want correlation? Compare the grammatical term *passive* with *passive resistance*, or a *coordinating* conjunction with the rôle of the present oil *coordinator*. Grammatical terms, viewed thus, are far more within the ken of the average pupil than many of the terms which he meets and conquers in his science or mechanics classes, and their use aids materially in the smooth functioning of the teacher's instruction.

(The high school junior mentioned in the third paragraph, on being shown these reflections, remarked, not without surprise, "Golly, there is some sense in that!"—A prophet is not without honor, etc.)

*Social Aspects of Modern Language Teaching*¹

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(*Author's summary.*—Language teachers stand on much firmer ground when they argue the value of the subject they teach because of its social aspects rather than for its cultural values. In a changing world, with distances shrinking, the need for an ability to talk with and understand our neighbors looms large.)

FOR years, foreign languages have been taught for their cultural value, but when one tries to pin down the exponents of "Latin or French for Culture," they usually talk in vague terms, not sure what culture is, or, if they know, unable to prove that one man is better than his fellows merely because he pores over a book written in another language. No wonder opponents of foreign language study complain that its costs exceed its advantages, just like the father who exclaimed over the unreasonable charge for languages when he saw in the expense account of his college son: "For Scotch . . . \$92.50."

When we stress the social aspects of foreign languages, we are on much firmer ground.

Man tries to advance by wise use of whatever innate traits or capacities he possesses. The final determinant, however, is the amount each of us has acquired of the stored-up knowledge of our age, what we have learned about methods of procedure or about the tools perfected by our ancestors or contemporaries. But we can't learn all the accumulated knowledge of the ages. What can be omitted? What is an "essential education" in a democracy?

Years ago, a Committee on Reorganization of Secondary Education summed up ideas about the purpose of education: "It should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends."

If we knew what places our students would fill, we could shape their educational courses to their measure as a tailor cuts cloth to fit a customer. But that was impossible in the past; and about the uncertain future we cannot even predict. All we know is that the future will be different from the dark world of today.

I heard of a little boy traveling with his mother on his first train journey,

¹ From a talk given before the Modern Language Teachers' Institute, Ohio State University, June 19, 1942, and the Southeastern Ohio Education Association, Athens, Ohio, Oct. 30, 1942. This material is being published by Ohio State University in a somewhat different form, along with all the proceedings of the Teachers Institute.

driven to it by tire shortage. The boy chattered continually until, suddenly and without warning, the train plunged into a tunnel. Dead silence filled the coach even after the train came out on the other side of the mountain. Finally the youngster whispered breathlessly: "Why, Mother, it's tomorrow!" After the dark tunnel of these days, we, too, have hopes of coming out, the other side of the mountain, into the World of Tomorrow.

We can be sure it will hold opportunities for venture and will, therefore, be a world for young people because they are the ones to whom the spice of adventure makes greatest appeal. With the energy of its youth and the wisdom of its elders, mankind is going to have to make the world civilized by revising values and restoring whatever is necessary to give life its meaning.

This will signal the end of isolation. Even in the present age, products of fifty-eight different countries went into the fabrication of a Ford automobile. Then came the war to prove still more conclusively that no nation can exist by and for itself. Ending isolation will mean establishing a relationship between all the world's inhabitants, a gigantic task involving the solution of problems of social differences, of races and colors and creeds. Otherwise the peace cannot be permanent. Exaggerated nationalism has been the underlying cause of most wars. Is there any better cure for nationalism than the internationalism engendered in those who know the languages and cultures of several nations?

Here is one social aspect of language teaching, and represents a contribution that teachers of foreign languages can make. And we must make it. We have only to think of the improvement in processes of mass murder between World War I and II to realize that a third world conflict would probably wipe out civilization completely.

To education, then, will fall the problem of training for this post-bellum world. Since in a democracy, the aim of the schools is to integrate rather than to differentiate, we teachers face a great opportunity. Nazi technique has shown how education can bring regimentation. Education in a democracy must provide regimentation, too, but under the slogan of "The Good of Society." If provincialism can be replaced by an international mind, the first step will have been taken because, after all, an important test of one who claims to be intelligent is his ability to understand. If we provide understanding, we also breed tolerance.

Those who plan curriculums for the future will check and test every subject to see whether it is vital for the citizens of the future. How does it integrate society? How does it raise the general level of mankind? How does it contribute to democracy? No subject will have a place in the new system merely on mystical or traditional grounds. Education is not like the Old Time Religion. What's good enough for Moses or good enough for my Grandfather is not, necessarily, good enough for me. I live in a different

world from either of them; I am anticipating a post-bellum world with even greater differences.

Many subjects are already shifting their emphasis in preparation for that changing world. Have you noticed the titles of some of the new textbooks for the old subjects? Have you seen *Practical Mathematics*, *Everyday Latin*, *Pan American Spanish*, *History for Moderns*, *Science in Everyday Life*? Many subjects, however, need more than a shift in emphasis: they require teachers who can see a modern application.

Why study History? It tells of wars long ended and techniques outmoded, you say. "History doesn't repeat." Really? The only two battles won in America by the Liberator, San Martín, were planned according to the oblique movement invented by the old Greek General Epaminondas. And a hundred years later, Lawrence of Arabia was still borrowing from the Greek military genius. Recently British generals came to America to study the battlefield of Gettysburg, when it was pointed out that Rommel in Africa was using tactics developed during our Civil War.

I am not advocating throwing out any subject taught today. But I insist that all should be made to prove their desirability for students who will have to face the World of the Future. Modern Language instruction, like everything else, should be challenged to prove its right to a place in the new system of education. I believe we teachers can justify it because of its social aspects.

In the past, the most usual charges flung at foreign languages were that students did not achieve a mastery of them and, even if they did, had no opportunity to use them.

Like Professor E. H. Hespelt, I could never figure out why languages were the only subjects required to defend themselves against that charge. When I look back over my own high school studies, I must confess I never achieved a mastery over most of them and failed to get rich by using any that I did learn.

In one Mathematics course, I learned how to figure out how many rolls of wall paper were needed for a room. Unfortunately when I decided to re-decorate my home, I made a mistake in computation to the extent of sixteen rolls. The paper hanger showed me my mistake, and then persuaded me to paint my walls, anyway.

I studied Physiology, too, but am still dependent on the verdict of my doctor. I learned Physics and even wrote a chapter for a textbook on physics that my teacher was preparing, but my eleven-year-old son caught me with a problem of aerodynamics the other day. I had two years of manual training, too. It failed to turn me into a carpenter or ever bring me in a penny, but you don't hear of my heading a campaign to get manual training out of the schools of America.

As for the second criticism, in these days of foreign broadcasts, of for-

eign words in published stories, of increased travel to foreign countries, the chances that students of foreign languages will have opportunities to practice what they learn are very great and will increase as time passes.

Education has three duties to perform for every new pupil who enters the first grade in September. It must inform him about the world into which he has come. It must train him in skills that will enable him some day to support himself and not become a drag on society. It must provide him with that extra something to let him justify his existence. In the process, every youngster acquires other skills for which he himself may find no practical use, but which may mean life or death to a classmate later placed in a different environment.

For instance, in high school, the student may be exposed to a foreign language along with chemistry and other studies. It is, of course, possible that he will never have occasion to use that training. But it is more probable that when he gets into the world, he will have a greater number of occasions when he wishes he knew more about the foreign language than chances to regret the way he loafed through chemistry. In that case, oblivious to the fact that he may have received even less returns from the hours spent in the laboratory, he will concentrate on criticizing foreign language teaching. At the basis of his criticism lies his regret that a couple of years in the language classroom did not turn him into a professional performer, able to use with fluency the foreign tongue.

Would an equal amount of training in any of the other classrooms have given him greater mastery of the other subjects? He ignores the changes in his prospective that occurred during those hours in the foreign language classroom. He does not realize the enriched understanding of his own language, the training in accuracy, comprehension, clear thinking, and precise expression with which he came out of that experience. If in later life he had decided on chemistry as his career, his high school training would not have been enough. It would have been merely a foundation for further study in university and laboratory. And in the same way, when he gets ready to use that foreign language for reading, or in graduate study or in foreign travel, he will find that, building on what he learned in school, he can attain mastery in a very much shorter time than one who has to start from scratch.

This is one ground on which we can demand a place in the new curriculum for language courses. Though they may have no immediate cash value, a two year course, even inadequately taught, cannot help but leave a permanent impression on the student and bind him more closely to the world in which he is going to live.

The Axis partners long ago realized the importance of foreign language study. In Germany, the study of American, English, and Russian languages and literatures is pursued as never before. When the Axis moves against a

new area, it bends every effort to learn the language and culture of the new opponent. The Japanese, too, have been concentrating on foreign languages and thought, publishing more translations and abstracts than any Ally.

World War I killed for a time the study of German in this country. World War II brought a decrease in America's interest in French. During both wars the Germans, by contrast, grimly studied the languages of their enemies so as to know how to conquer them, on the principle that makes football coaches scout their opponents for weeks before the championship game. The University of Berlin created a whole college called the "Faculty for the Study of Foreign Countries and Languages." Here, for instance, optimistic German traders could study Bantu and Ki-Swaheli, in preparation for the day when Germany should control Africa.

Japanese know more about our culture than we do about theirs. All but one member of a Japanese War Cabinet had lived in the United States and England and could talk our language. The diplomat sent to divert our attention till the Pearl Harbor treachery even used American slang.

Only one high official in the United States (a former missionary) can read or talk Japanese. No wonder our nation so woefully underestimated Nippon and was so easily deceived by Japanese propaganda. Under- or over-estimation of an enemy is a heavy handicap to a nation at war.

In war time we should know the language and culture of other nations as a weapon. In peace time that knowledge becomes a bond of friendship. One of the great deterrents to world peace has been the inability of people throughout the world to exchange ideas through the medium of a common language. There are two possible places for the settlement of international problems: the conference table and the battlefield. If nations can talk together in mutual respect, they can arrange differences by discussion; otherwise they use force.

In the World of the Future, with isolation ended and with so many nations thrown together, teachers of foreign languages will play an important part in fostering understanding.

Language teachers are handicapped by the almost universal tradition that two years of language study are enough. Instead of being taught as a preparatory course, in many cases it is terminal. It must carry its own significance, instead of being what a two-years language course ought to be: training in the use of a tool for further investigation and knowledge. Yet this need not be an excuse to abandon language teaching or turn our courses into two years of pouring unrelated facts about foreign civilization into students' minds.

I recently read of an elaborate scheme by which teachers can make French students conscious of French Civilization under four heads: People and Country, History, Biography, and Literature and Fine Arts, all through talks and reading English. Another article advocated compiling

a list of facts essential for beginners in German. Each detail was to be dragged into the class discussion and checked off when the seed was planted. One Spanish teacher of my acquaintance devoted the first five minutes of each class period to realia. He would take an object into class and tell about it, or relate an anecdote, or sing a song for the entertainment of his students. At best, any of these systems turns language teachers into soda jerkers at the fountain of youth, supplying sweet froth that will give their customers indigestion.

Language teachers should teach language. No amount of side shows, of singing or realia, of parading facts about civilization, can take the place of instruction in reading, and possibly in speaking and writing the language. Language instruction is a long-time job, as we all know from our experiences learning our own language. None of the speak-easy French in ten hours! Have you seen that advertisement: "How do you know you can't talk Italian? Have you ever tried?" I have on my shelf *Spanish in 40 hours*. What a contrast to Terry's book *Short-Cut to Spanish* which contains 543 pages!

I am not advocating making language instruction easy, by spoon-feeding our students. If one of our claims is that our subject has social aspects, in that it helps prepare for life, we cheat students by predigesting everything. Pre-digested cereals, the dentist tell us, weaken our ability to get our teeth into tougher morsels, and give us flabby gums. Pre-digested language instruction will result in flabby minds and lazy habits. In the World of the Future, hard work and difficult problems will be waiting for the students we have today. Why shouldn't they get a bit of practice at it in school?

Students don't develop language skills by receiving tidbits, interesting for a moment but soon forgotten. Before our language teaching can have any social significance, it must become part of the life of each student. By his study of a foreign language, he can see the cross-fertilization of cultures and can get a glimpse into the minds of those who speak that language. What are better than modes of expression to provide enlightening hints about the development of thought in different nations whose inhabitants are to be fellow-citizens with our students in the World of Tomorrow?

A teacher is needed to guide those studies of the intimate forms of expression which we call "idioms." What a blazing light is cast upon the easy-going Spaniard by his phrase: *el reloj anda*. Contrast that expression, "the watch walks" with our equivalent, "the watch runs." In three words the hurrying American is differentiated from the inhabitants of the Land of Mañana. Compare the logic of the Spanish *prestar atencion* ("lend attention." You can claim it back in a minute) with the English "pay attention." And what could be more accurate as well as revealing than *sufrir un examen*?

Or take the difference in position of the adjective. A student is told when

beginning to study French: "a descriptive adjective follows its noun." "That's crazy!" sputters the American. "Why don't they do it the logical way?" (By that he means "the American way.") But which is logical, *le cheval noir* or "the black horse"? Suppose the student and a Frenchman each hears the phrase pronounced slowly in his own language. The American's mind remains static until the whole phrase is completed, but as soon as the Frenchman hears the noun, his mind can go to work visualizing a horse. It is all ready to be dyed black when the adjective arrives. Which is the logical way?

A teacher who can make students see that those who say something differently from Americans are not necessarily crazy, that other customs are not inherently silly, that other languages may be blessed by logic and precision, is going to create, at first tolerance, then a pro-feeling. By a few words of explanation, a teacher can start students looking for reasons for differences in language construction and can encourage the development of a flexible mind so necessary in a changing world.

Language skills, properly taught, produce people with understanding and tolerance of the flaws of the countries where those languages are spoken, just as we overlook unpleasant qualities in our friends. How can a teacher, for instance, prepare young people who will have to associate with "monstrous Germany, cowardly France, double-dealing Spain"? First of all, show the students that whatever ideas they have about any nation on the globe have probably been created by propaganda or prejudice and are subject to change upon better acquaintance. Then stimulate that better acquaintance by providing classes with a knowledge of the daily life of the citizens, their achievements, their present philosophy and the reasons for it.

Who have been extending their hatred of the present Germany and its leaders backward to include all Germany of the past and forward to take in a Germany yet to come? Those who know nothing of the old Germany of music and art and literature.

Who is interested in the re-establishment of La Belle France? Students who have studied her language and who know, through their reading, her glorious past history and the reasons for her temporary eclipse.

Ask the man in the street and he will say that Chile and especially Argentina are enemies of the United States and likely to go over to the Axis. Anyone who knows about South America can clear up this lack of understanding which has done so much to plague Pan American cooperation. Both those nations had perfectly logical reasons for not breaking relations with Germany or following the lead of other Latin American countries, at the Rio convention.

Such aims in language teaching go far beyond a grammar and translation method. Too many who stand before language classes think instruction means conquering technical difficulties. They believe their students

know German when they can conjugate irregular verbs without a mistake. Even many instructors who claim to be interested in culture are chiefly engrossed in linguistic problems instead of in the larger implications.

More important than the dates of Blest Gana or his novels or even an insistence that the class notice how he uses the *-ra* form of the past subjunctive instead of the *-se* form is the knowledge that students ought to get by reading his novels about the life of Chilean young people, including how they flirt and find sweethearts under the chaperonage of their lynx-eyed *dueñas*.

And we are not good French teachers till our classes "think French" in the sense of knowing the people and the country. In the past, foreign languages, especially French, had a social aspect. They were a sort of veneer on which was applied the polish of a gentleman or lady. That is not the social aspect intended by the title of this discussion.

The ability to read or say a few words in a foreign language should not be regarded on a par with ability to do parlor tricks. Most young ladies of fashion of an earlier age studied French with a tutor or in a finishing school, read Molière or Racine or Hugo, and knew no more of the real France than a foreigner learns of America by reading only Emerson's *Essays* and Gene Stratton Porter. No! Getting acquainted with America means learning about Okies and Labor Movements, too. As foreign language teachers, we must provide well-rounded and complete pictures of the countries whose languages we teach, if our students are to regard their inhabitants as fellows in the World of Tomorrow.

Most of that instruction should come after the students have learned to read the foreign language. Reading provides them with a magic window through which to view a new civilization and culture. Take a provincial student of the United States who knows perhaps a hundred square miles of his native United States. How his range of thought will widen when his reading in some foreign language compels him to rearrange his concepts to include thousands of years of history and millions of square miles of alien people! Dipping into the French Classical drama helps him appreciate the Age of Louis. Studying the Spanish picaresque novel gives him an impression of the time of the Philips when Spanish subjects were hungry and poverty-stricken in spite of the stream of silver flowing from the New World. And what better way for that provincial youngster to re-create the Germany of Romanticism than by singing the *Lorelei* and reading the *Taugenichts* of Eichendorff?

Some school administrators, while agreeing that the coming generation needs to learn about other cultures and to become world-minded, want this instruction given by teachers of Social Sciences.

It won't work. I don't mean that they lack tools. But it requires more than a reading and discussion of one of the many available books dealing

with foreign civilizations. With practice, anyone can learn to pronounce the foreign names, but only language teachers can add those little touches like foreign phrases and bits of local color that make such a course memorable. Even though comparatively little reading is done by students in the foreign language, that much will pique their interest in the subject and increase their social literacy. The subject will be real and vital only under the guidance of a teacher who can bring to the course the fresh enthusiasm of one steeped in the culture of the countries whose language he is teaching and able to let students see and hear that language.

So, intrusted with the responsibility of teaching this sort of course, we language teachers must make our language instruction come to life, and must consider the best ways of impressing its social significance on our students.

Why should we worry over the eternal argument about the relative importance of intensive or extensive reading? No one can settle it. Both camps have logic on their side. We can concentrate on one volume in which to study the language, and then read a lot outside class in the foreign language or even in English, depending on the ability of the students. It is equally feasible to assign outside readings in English from histories of the country, *National Geographic* articles, anthropological books, or treatises on the economics of the country, and then require our students to read the literature of the country in its original language.

Other teachers have been just as successful in transmitting to their students the feeling for the country's institutions by rapid reading in the foreign language of representative volumes interpreting many phases of culture.

Only language teachers totally blind to the social aspects of their subject will confine themselves to one or two books, read slowly and intensively, and unaccompanied by extra local color supplied by the teacher.

The cause of much of our poor language instruction is, of course, the poor preparation of many engaged in teaching it. The teachers themselves are usually not to blame. Too often, high school teaching assignments are made merely because someone has a light schedule and a couple of years of college training in the language. Wouldn't it be ideal if, for protection of both teacher and pupils, one requisite for language teaching were an internship in a foreign country, as medical training has its internes? Permit no one to teach French, for instance, unless he had spent a minimum of three months in France. That would not be enough to insure adequately prepared teachers, of course, if the teachers of French are like the many other American tourists who roam the streets of Paris for weeks and come away without hearing or using a hundred words of French. But it would help.

Mexico City plays host each summer to 200,000 tourists from the United States. In such a horde, few, I fear, acquire the seeing eye and the

"feel" of Mexico. I know a Spanish teacher, anxious to cash in on the interest in Portuguese, who went for a two-weeks visit to Brazil, equipped with a can of Sanka coffee. Maybe she *was* sure she would not like the coffee of Santos, roasted blacker than we use it, and sometimes mixed with chocolate; but until she had tried to like it, she was blind to one side of Brazilian life and character.

I know of another who visited Peru for the summer session and arranged to have *Time* follow her by airmail each week because she distrusted the ability of the Lima press to keep her informed on world events. Another went to Spain, but shunned bullfights because she had heard they were horrid! None of these teachers was sufficiently conscious of the social aspects of the subject she taught to make the effort to "feel" the country.

What difference? you ask. All these teachers can talk Spanish. Why not let their students read in books about Brazilian coffee or Peruvian newspapers? What if their teacher hadn't seen a bullfight? Descriptions of them in *Death in the Afternoon* or in Maugham's *Andalusia* are much more vivid than anything that teacher could say.

Yet somehow mankind is sensitive to the sound of a voice. The personal element makes an unforgettable appeal. Even the halting description of a bullfight, heard from the teacher's lips, would be remembered long after a more polished description, merely read by the student, had been forgotten.

Have you ever heard: "Sure, I know about French wines! My teacher in high school tasted them all, and he said. . . ." Students long remember little items mentioned in passing by the teacher. In our classes at Miami, we had read for years about *yerba mate*; then came a teacher who had lived in Uruguay. After he talked about the drink, in self-defense and to stop questions, we had to order a kilo of mate and pass out sample cupfuls during class periods.

Can a teacher of Social Sciences, merely interpreting the printed text, stir his students like that?

And so, to be ambassadors of good will for the country whose language we teach, in order to inculcate in our students the international mind which will be essential for meeting the problems of the World of the Future, we must prepare ourselves more thoroughly than if we taught Mathematics or English. We must steep ourselves in the culture of the country, and then shall we be able to fulfill the obligations that face us as leaders of young people whom we must guide as they travel hopefully toward a vastly different social order ahead.

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR GLOBAL WAR AND GLOBAL PEACE!"

A Method of Teaching German Conversation

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(*Author's summary.*—The process of evolution and the method of conducting a course in German Conversation and Advanced Composition. Pictures form the basis for conversational practice. Essays are written on various topics. Original testing devices are employed. The method is equally applicable to other foreign languages.)

IN AN article¹ on the use of sound films in the teaching of foreign languages, published in this *Journal*, the author declares: "It has been the writer's experience that the majority of students taking a foreign language course desire more than anything else to acquire a speaking knowledge of that language. . . . This is the most personal, and hence the most distinctive of all the language abilities." These sentiments are so much in accord with my own that I have been stimulated to write down my experiences in teaching German conversation and to outline the methods which I have developed, in order that they may serve as a possible guide for any of my colleagues who should wish to organize a course in German conversation or who, perchance, are suddenly faced with the necessity of conducting such a course. By both of these, a few suggestions concerning the methodology of a course of this kind may be welcomed.

For the past few years, I have been teaching the course in German conversation at Rutgers University. It came into being as the result of a spontaneous demand on the part of some of our advanced students. To be sure, the members of our department strive to introduce some conversation into every course which they teach, from elementary German to the most advanced class in literature. Nevertheless, the need was felt for a specific course devoted wholly to German conversation.

However, from the very beginning, I realized that conversation alone might not suffice to develop in the members of the class that mastery of the German language which is our ultimate goal. In addition, it might expose the course to the charge of superficiality. It might be charged that the members of the class achieved only a smattering of the language, that their basic knowledge of the subject would not be increased to any worthwhile extent. Besides, we in the German Department at Rutgers have always regarded proficiency in writing the foreign language as a significant goal of our endeavors, and we always strive to improve the ability of our students to write German in every course which we teach. It is our belief that writing German is one of the best pedagogical devices which we can employ to inculcate a

¹ J. R. Palomo, "A Desired Technique for the Use of Sound Films in the Teaching of Foreign Languages," *The Modern Language Journal*, XXIV, No. 4 (Jan. 1940), pp. 282-288.

knowledge of the German language in our students. This is accomplished by introducing into every intermediate German course one of the conventional composition books, such as those by Pope, Hewitt, or Whitney and Stroebe, or a review grammar like those by Cochran, Morgan and Mohme, and others, which supply large numbers of English sentences to be translated into German, generally based upon a similar German text which has previously been studied by the class. Accordingly, every student permitted to enroll in the course in German conversation had had this training in formal composition. In the new course it seemed desirable that the members of the class should write free compositions based upon the subject matter used for conversational practice, drawing on their personal experiences, rather than translating set material. This procedure seemed to me to strike a creative note. The sum of these desiderata provided the course with its title: German Conversation and Advanced Composition.

When I began to teach this subject, I was struck by the paucity of the material available for the purpose and the limited amount of information or experience recorded by those who had conducted similar courses in the past. It soon became evident that an entirely new method of procedure would have to be worked out for the conduct of this class.

I had felt from the very first that pictures would serve admirably as subject material for the course. After considerable searching, I found the book by Thora Goldschmidt entitled: *Bildertafeln für den Unterricht im Deutschen*,² with the sub-title: *38 Anschauungsbilder mit erläuterndem Text, Übungsbeispielen, einem Abriss der Grammatik und einem systematisch geordneten Wörterverzeichnis*. These titles are almost self-explanatory; nevertheless, a more detailed explanation of the content of the book may not be amiss. Some of the subjects illustrated are: *Der Bahnhof, Die Stadt, Das Hotel, Das Handelskontor, Der Markt, Feuerwehr und Strassenreinigung, Kraftwagen und Luftfahrzeuge, Schiffe und Hafen, Der menschliche Körper* and *Das Haus*, as well as separate pictures of various rooms in the house, such as *Das Wohnzimmer, Das Esszimmer, Das Schlafzimmer* and *Die Küche*. Several pages are devoted to *Handwerker und Gewerbetreibende*; other pictures are titled: *Der Bauernhof, Der Garten, Der Wald, Tiere, Fische* and *Vögel*. Two pictures which are especially pertinent in view of the world conflict are labeled *Die Flotte* and *Das Landheer*. Under each picture is a comprehensive vocabulary covering all but the commonest objects depicted in the drawing above it. Only nouns are given. After this vocabulary follow one or several paragraphs of explanatory material, utilizing the vocabulary of the picture in connected idiomatic prose. Usually this is followed by a paragraph entitled *Zwiesgespräch*, illustrating typical conversational colloquialisms. Another section under the heading *Was man zu tun und zu*

² Published by Ferdinand Hirt & Sohn, Leipzig, 1931.

sagen hat further develops this practical theme. A dozen or more integrated Fragen supplement the exercises already mentioned. Occasionally a poem or a proverb rounds out the comprehensive exercise material. An appendix of eighteen pages is devoted to a summary of German grammar. A systematically arranged vocabulary list under various headings like *Die Schule, Die Familie, Der menschliche Körper, Der moralische Mensch, Die Erde, Die Stadt, Das Reisen, Wald und Garten, Die Natur, Die Musik, Das Theater, Die Literatur* and *Sport und Leibesübungen* concludes the book. I feel bound to add that the subject matter of the Thora Goldschmidt book is comprehensive and thorough, the arrangement of the material is consistent, coherent and interesting.

Realizing that one book, no matter how thorough, would scarcely suffice for a year course in German conversation, I sought further material. I succeeded in obtaining eight wall pictures of the series *Tableaux Auxiliaires Delmas*, each almost three by four feet. Picture No. 1 shows several rooms in a school (a *Gymnasium*), Picture No. 2 a playground. Picture No. 3 has two parts: the scene on the left depicts *Eine Taufe auf dem Lande*, the one on the right *Eine Kirmes*. Picture No. 4 likewise has two scenes: the one at the left is called *Das Hochzeitsmahl*, the one at the right *Der Geburtstag des Grossvaters*. No. 5 has the title *Das Haus und sein Bau*. No. 6, which I do not possess, shows the interior arrangements of a house. No. 7, which is likewise not in my possession, has two parts entitled respectively *Das Dorf im Winter* and *Der Bauernhof im Frühling*. In No. 8 the first picture deals with the harvest, the second one with the vintage. Further numbers concern themselves with subjects like *Das Gebirge, Der Wald, Das Meer, Der Seehafen, Die Stadt, Die Feuersbrunst, Die Eisenbahn, Der Gasthof, Der Markt, Das Kaufhaus* and so forth. A book of *Sprech- und Leseübungen*³ accompanies the series of Delmas' Hilfsbilder, with the sub-title: *Für den praktischen Unterricht in den modernen Sprachen*. This book has also been published in English, Spanish, French, Italian, and Esperanto, so that the Delmas pictures could be used by teachers of these languages for conversation or other exercises in the respective languages. In the book there are conversational exercises to accompany each of the sixteen Delmas pictures. To assist the student, the nouns occurring in the texts are numbered to correspond with the objects they represent in the pictures. The authors remark in the preface that they deem the verb to be of the utmost importance in language study. Because of this, and because of the difficulties involved in the use of this part of speech, all verbs are printed in large-faced type. An occasional poem supplements the conversational exercises.

Besides the Delmas pictures, I also have two somewhat larger pictures

³ E. Rochelle and K. Körner, *Sprech- und Leseübungen nach Delmas' Hilfsbildern*, G. Delmas, Bourdeaux, 1917.

(approximately $3' \times 4\frac{1}{2}'$), published by J. M. Dent and Sons of London, entitled *Winter and Spring*. The one entitled *Winter* shows a stage coach stopping before an inn, children skating, making a snowman, and other details appropriate to a winter scene. In the one entitled *Spring* a rustic scene is depicted. A peasant is harrowing his field. A girl feeds the chickens. Bees are buzzing about the hives, birds are nesting in the trees, children are playing a merry game in the foreground. A church and a castle adorn the background. What a wealth of material for conversational practice!

Now as to the method which I follow in making use of these various items in teaching German conversation—the book by Thora Goldschmidt and the pictures by Delmas and Dent. In the case of the *Bildertafeln*, the students are told to examine carefully the picture assigned, to learn the vocabulary beneath the picture, and to study the exercise material accompanying the picture. Each one prepares from six to a dozen questions (depending on the number of students in the class and the time available) based on the picture. In class each student poses his questions to the other members of the group, usually in rotation. Depending upon circumstances, or for the sake of variety, each student may ask one question in his turn or all of those he has prepared, in succession around the class. The instructor may take his turn as the final interrogator or he may intersperse pertinent questions as the occasion arises. After the picture has been thoroughly discussed, each student hands in an original German essay of about 250 words based on the theme of the picture. These are corrected, and returned at the next session of the class. Mistakes are briefly discussed, misunderstandings are cleared up.

A similar procedure is followed in the case of the *Wandbilder*. Since there was no vocabulary connected with them, one was prepared in each case by members of the class, corrected by the instructor, and mimeographed. In order to provide the students with a copy of the picture which they could study at home, I had photographs made of them, eight by ten inches in size, which are loaned to the members of the course. Because of the large amount of detail in the *Wandbilder*, each student prepares fifteen or twenty questions about them, and the essay may be correspondingly longer.

Sometimes the essays are required in the form of a letter, sometimes they take the form of an entry into one's diary. The results are amazing. Personal experiences are recounted, dreams retold, original stories produced. Humorous episodes are frequent and full play is given to the imagination. An interesting type of composition which is sometimes employed, and which presents excellent possibilities for testing, is one in which the student is given the first word of each sentence in sequence, according to which he writes the essay. The results are striking. In one such assignment which was given the words ran as follows:

Neulich.....	Langsam.....
Plötzlich.....	Trotzdem (Dennoch).....
Das.....	Bald.....
Neugierig.....	Müde.....
Dann.....	Endlich.....
Obwohl.....	

This form of composition presents infinite possibilities.

For conversational practice, advantage is taken of significant events in the lives of the students. Shortly after the semester has begun each member of the class relates what he did during the summer. He tells of the work he did, the friends he made, interesting experiences which he had, etc. The same thing is done after the Christmas and Easter vacations. When we discuss the railroad or steamships, members of the group tell of their travels, when we discuss the theater, they describe plays which they have seen, operas which they have attended or performances in which they took part. When an important football game or other athletic event has taken place it is discussed in class. Significant events of national or international importance may be briefly taken up.

One or two classes are devoted to German geography. Individual members of the class report on various themes like: *Die Grenzen Deutschlands*, *Die deutschen Staaten*, *Deutsche Städte*, *Deutsche Gebirge*, *Deutsche Flüsse*, *Deutsche Seen*, *Das deutsche Klima*.

A conversation course like this affords the teacher an unusual opportunity to introduce materials associated with Kulturkunde. Railroad tickets and timetables may be passed around; hotel bills, menus, pictures, view cards, coins and currency, theater programs, photographs, trolley car tickets, postage stamps, newspapers and magazines, guide books and similar souvenirs of the teacher's travels can be introduced. Lectures illustrated with lantern slides can be given on appropriate occasions.

Occasionally anecdotes should be read to the class and retold by the students. Fragen based on these anecdotes may be asked. Materials for this purpose can be found in many quarters. I have used the stories and anecdotes in Betz and Price's *A First German Book*,⁴ Betz and Holzwarth's *A Second German Book*,⁴ Funke's *Lustiges Deutsch*,⁵ Stroebel's *Deutsche Anekdoten*,⁶ *Reading Comprehension Tests in German*⁷ and others. Such material is also valuable for testing the aural and oral proficiency of the students.

Preferably during the second semester the students give prose paraphrases of one or more poems. Appropriate selections are Goethe's Erl-

⁴ American Book Company.

⁵ Crofts & Company.

⁶ Heath & Company.

⁷ Holt & Company.

könig and Der Sänger, Schiller's Der Handschuh, Uhland's Der Wirtin Töchterlein, Des Sängers Fluch and Das Glück von Edenhall, Heine's Belsazar and Der gute Kamerad, Rückert's Barbarossa, Mörike's Schön-Rohtraut, Kerner's Der reichste Fürst, Platen's Das Grab im Busento, Eichendorff's Das zerbrochene Ringlein and Kopisch's Die Heinzelmännchen.

As they progress they may be asked to read short stories and Novellen and to reproduce them in class. I have found the stories in *Mitten im Leben* by Diamond and Reinsch⁷ very satisfactory for this purpose. Depending upon the time available and the proficiency of the members of the class, Novellen by Hauff, Storm, Keller, C. F. Meyer, Raabe, Stifter, Zschokke and Heyse can be read and related.

With regard to quizzes and examinations, a number of possibilities present themselves. Vocabulary tests may be given at intervals, composition tests should be employed with some frequency. These may take the form of English sentences based on the material covered in a certain period of time, later they may be original compositions on a given theme, e.g. *Ein Spaziergang, Eine Reise, Ein Ausflug, Ein Erlebnis, Der Besuch, Ein Traum, Einkäufe, Der Zirkus, Der zoologische Garten, Das Museum, Der menschliche Körper, Auf dem Lande, Der Sommer, Der Winter, Ein Telefongespräch, Eine Sitzung des Deutschen Vereins, Eine deutsche Stadt, Im Restaurant, Ein Geschäftsbrief, Eine Theateraufführung*, etc. As previously suggested, the first word of each sentence to be used in writing a composition may be given, whereupon the student follows the prescribed sequence of words in writing the essay. For testing conversation, short stories and anecdotes may be read aloud by the teacher and repeated by the students. Each member of the class may be asked to talk on one of the essay topics suggested above, he may explain a poem that he knows, he may retell a story that he has read.

The plan here proposed for teaching German conversation is suggestive, not exhaustive. Most of it is just as applicable to the teaching of conversation in other foreign languages like French or Spanish as it is to teaching German conversation. It is my hope that some teachers who may be called upon to teach German conversation will be benefited by the suggestions made here. From my own experience over a period of years, it is my belief that this method of conducting a course in German conversation has a good chance of attaining its purpose—the improvement of the ability of our students to speak and understand German, as well as their mastery of the language in general.

"A SECOND LANGUAGE IS AN ASSET. ASK THE MAN WHO KNOWS ONE."

*Phonetics and Recent Developments in Language Study**

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(Author's summary.—The development of phonetics as an applied and an experimental science in the various fields of language study and of language teaching. The value of phonetics training in the study of the so-called less known languages and the importance of applied phonetics in the teaching of modern languages in the light of the recent political developments.)

WHEN Jacob Grimm wrote his monumental work *Deutsche Grammatik* (4 v., 1819–1837), he called the first volume *Von den Buchstaben*. Here he discussed the sounds of the various Germanic languages and traced their development from Gothic to the modern forms of German, English, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian and Dutch.

Thorough as Grimm was as a scholar and right as he was in his conclusions as to the nature of the speech sounds and the laws of their development—the famous law of the Germanic consonant change bears his name—we feel that he approached the problem of linguistic change with the eye rather than with the ear. Linguistic science of the first half of the 19th century traditionally paid little attention to the spoken forms of the language, and the printed text was the main object of research.

If we look at another field of language study during that period, we find a similar situation. The teaching of foreign languages was predominantly pre-occupied with the so-called “dead” languages, Greek and Latin. Also these languages were studied from the printed texts only. Teacher and pupil paid little or no attention to the original pronunciation of the texts, a situation which even today is reflected in the teaching of Latin in many schools in this country. The method of the classical languages was applied to the teaching of modern languages when they appeared on the school plan. Also here the word was conceived as a printed phenomenon and as a unit of letters rather than of sounds; grammar drill and translation work were the chief aims of instruction.

During the last one hundred years, phonetics has developed as a science which has revolutionized linguistic research as well as language teaching, and today no competent linguist or teacher of foreign languages attacks the problems of his profession without a thorough training in this field. It should not be forgotten how important a part phonetics plays also in the teaching of the mother tongue for practical and artistic purposes and in the field of speech therapy.

Phonetics, the science of the spoken language, has become a science in itself with various divisions and subdivisions and many applications. We

* Paper read before the 1942 Conference of the Central States Speech Association.

speak of practical and comparative phonetics on the one hand, which may be called phonetics of the ear, and of experimental phonetics on the other hand, which uses instruments of various kinds and which through the development of electroacoustics, photography, and x-ray technique has made great advance during the last twenty years.

Daniel Jones, the well-known English phonetician, characterizes the aims and fields of phonetics as:

1. Foreign Languages, 2. The Mother Tongue, 3. Speech Defects, 4. Orthography, 5. Other Types of Alphabet, 6. Comparative Study of Languages, 7. History of Language, 8. Dialectology, and he adds Phonetic Analysis and Experimental Phonetics to this list.¹

An interesting task for the modern linguist is the investigation of the dialect structure of a language. Dialects are forms of a language spoken by various regional or social groups. The hero of Shaw's entertaining play *Pygmalion* is a phonetician who can tell from the dialect of a speaker in which particular part of England or even of London that person was born. The hero develops a simple Cockney girl into a lady by changing her low class dialect into the King's English.

Through the application of phonetic technique, dialectology has made great progress, especially since the beginning of this century. The first complete survey of a language was Wrede's *Deutscher Sprachatlas* (1926 f.). It was followed by a similar work for France, *Atlas linguistique de la France*, and for Italy: *Sprach- und Sachatlas Italiens und der Südschweiz* (1928 f.). A work of equal importance is being compiled for this country—*The Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada*—which is under the direction of Professor Hans Kurath of Brown University. The New England Atlas is completed now. Other parts of this Linguistic Atlas have been commenced for the Hudson River Valley, for the Atlantic Seaboard and the Great Lakes Region. A similar work for the Middle West is planned.²

The Linguistic Atlas of Spain has been compiled by T. Navarro Tomás of Columbia University and a corresponding work for the Spanish-speaking parts of America is planned and will be under Professor Tomás' direction.³ For Canadian French and Louisiana French linguistic surveys have been made or suggested.⁴

Dialects ordinarily are unwritten forms of one particular language. A much wider field has opened itself to the linguist in recording unwritten languages in various parts of the earth.

¹ M. F. 1938, Part 1. Suppl.

² J. Milton Cowan: "Recent Trends in Linguistics" 1941 (unpubl.).

³ Bulletin No. 34 (March 1942) of the American Council of Learned Societies.

⁴ Walter von Wartburg: "To What Extent is an Atlas of Louisiana French Possible and Desirable?" Bulletin No. 34 of the A. C. L. S.

Whereas the languages of the Indo-European group, as well as Hebrew and Arabic, have attracted the attention of the scholars for centuries, a great number of languages remained practically unknown. Others found a very scant treatment up to the second half of the 19th century and were investigated with insufficient linguistic training or insufficient technical means by travellers or missionaries. Even today we do not know the exact number of languages spoken on the earth. We know very little about many Central African languages, great parts of Asia are linguistically unexplored, and many American Indian languages, especially in South America, are waiting for the linguist to discover and describe them. As most of these languages exist only in spoken form it is evident that the explorer needs phonetic training to record and analyze them. New forms and principles of language have been discovered. New sound phenomena which signify meaning relations unknown to the Western speaker had to be recorded by means of special phonetic symbols and marking devices which challenge the inventive mind of the explorer.

An especially interesting chapter is the research in American Indian which has been carried on recently. Franz Boas and Edward Sapir may be regarded as pioneers in this field. One of Professor Sapir's latest contributions to science was an investigation of glottalized continuants in Navaho, Nootka, and Kwakiutl (with a note on Indo-European).⁵ Professor Bloomfield has investigated the Algonquin languages in the northeastern part of the United States and in eastern and central Canada. Proto-Algonquin consonant clusters are described by C. F. Voegelin.⁶ Mary R. Haas discusses the Ablaut and its functions in Muskogee.⁷ In another article she analyses geminate consonate clusters of this Creek Indian Language.⁸ Also "Tunica" becomes an object of her research.⁹ Jules Henry investigates the linguistic position of the Ashluslay Indians in the Gran Chaco.¹⁰ For about two years Dr. Milton Cowan has been recording and analyzing Sac and Fox Indian of the Tama Reservation in Iowa. For further information on the literature in this field, I refer to Morris Swadesh's *Bibliography of American Indian Linguistics* and to the *Handbook of American Languages*, published by Franz Boas (1941).

English and German linguists have done a great deal of research in the field of African languages. A number of important studies have appeared during the last ten years on various Bantu languages, Hottentot, Khomani, Bushman, Hausa, Buduma, Duala, Ibo and others.

⁵ *Language* XIV, 1938, No. 4, p. 318 ff.

⁶ *Language* XVII, 1941, No. 2, p. 143 ff.

⁷ *Language* XVI, 1940, No. 2, p. 141 ff.

⁸ *Language* XIV, 1938, No. 1, p. 61 ff.

⁹ *Handbook of American Languages*, Vol. 4. New York, 1941.

¹⁰ *International Journal of American Linguistics*, Vol. X. No. 213, Nov. 1939.

Also Asiatic, Polynesian, Philippine and a number of less-known Eurasian languages have found a more systematic treatment with regard to grammar, vocabulary, and phonology.

A great number of monographs and articles have been published stressing the phonemic aspects of Chinese and Japanese written partly by Western, partly by Oriental scholars. It should also be noticed that Tokyo possesses one of the best-equipped phonetic laboratories in the world.

Not only the modern languages but even the dead ones have profited from the progress of phonetic science. In Edgar H. Sturtevant's book, *The Pronunciation of Greek and Latin*,¹¹ the two classical languages arise out of their linguistic tombs and breathe the air of our time in their spoken forms. Sturtevant should also be noted as the foremost Hittitist in this country. In several recently published articles he analyzes a number of phonetic phenomena of this old language: "Evidence for the voicing of Indo-Hittite γ ,"¹² "Hittite Evidence against full grade o ,"¹³ "The Indo-Hittite and Hittite Correspondences to Indo-European α ."¹⁴ James Philipp Hyatt discusses "The Treatment of Final Vowels in Early Neo-Babylonian."¹⁵ E. A. Speiser investigates the "Phonetic Method in Hurrian Orthography" and finds that it parallels the Hittite in confusing voiced and voiceless stops of Akkadian, a statement which applies primarily to the middle of the second millennium B.C. and the following centuries.¹⁶ Tocharian phonological problems are analyzed by George S. Lane.¹⁷ Even Sanskrit, supposedly the oldest known language of the Indo-European family and first to be phonologically described by its own phoneticians, finds in Allan Harrison Fry a scholar who attempts a "Phonemic Interpretation of Visarga."¹⁸

The linguist of today has to be a versatile phonetician, the modern phonetician a versatile linguist. In the *Mattre Phonétique*, the periodical of the International Phonetics Association, the story of "The Northwind and the Sun" is used as a model story for translation into many foreign languages. These translations, often with introductory notes on the peculiarities of the foreign sound system, intonation patterns, and with explanations of special symbols are rendered in phonetic transcription (I. Ph. A.) and it is interesting to note in how many different versions this little story appeared in the last four volumes of the M. F. There we find

¹¹ William Dwight Linguistic Series. Philadelphia. The Linguistic Society of America, 1940.

¹² *Language* XVI, 1940, part 2, p. 81 ff.

¹³ *Language* XIV, 1938, part 2, p. 104 ff.

¹⁴ *Language* XVII, 1941, part 3, p. 179 ff.

¹⁵ Yale Oriental Series, New Haven, 1940.

¹⁶ *Language* XVI, 1940, part 4, p. 319 ff.

¹⁷ *Language* XIV, 1938, part 1, p. 20 ff.

¹⁸ *Language* XVII, 1941, part 3, p. 194 ff. (cf. also: M. Bloomfield and F. Edgerton, *Vedic Variants II. Phonetics*. Special Publ. of the Linguistic Society).

about fifty different languages and dialects recorded; among them: Dutch, Pas de Calais, Provençal, Northern New England American, West English, the South Hama dialect, Uruguayan Spanish, Syrian Arabic, General American, Cashmery, Japanese, Thai (Siamese), Serbo-Croatian, the Chinese dialect of Szechuan, Iraki Arabic, Northern New Jersey, and even Sixteenth Century Spanish.¹⁹

As a further example of the linguistic versatility of the modern phonetician we may mention one of the ablest English phoneticians, Miss Lilius Armstrong, in whose memory Daniel Jones wrote: "She made a specialized study of the phonetics of many languages, including English, French, Swedish, Russian, Burmese, Chinese (Amoy dialect), Somali, and Kikujū."²⁰

One of the problems which grew out of the more intensified occupation of the linguist with the spoken language was the realization that the isolated speech sound was too narrow a concept for linguistic analysis, and that for various practical and theoretical purposes the sound had to be considered as part of a meaningful unit by which it was determined as to its particular phonetic character and phonological function. The phoneme, an oscillating term which is more clearly circumscribed by W. F. Twaddell in his *Language Monograph* "On Defining the Phoneme,"²¹ was used to describe this phonological relation.

With the discovery of new sounds and sound shades the phonetic transcription had to be modified and differentiated, new symbols had to be invented and agreed upon, and when the so-called tonal languages like Chinese and a number of African and American languages had to be recorded, special principles of tonal notation had to be developed. Y. R. Chao recommends a system of Tone Letters consisting of suggestive angles, hooks, and lines which he applies to the transcription of Tibetan (Lasa dialect).²² Bien Ming Chu employs horizontal dashes, curves, and dots arranged in a system of three parallel lines to indicate the relative pitch tendency of a syllable in the phonetic transcription of the Chinese Amoi dialect,²³ whereas I. C. Ward uses dots on various levels in a similar system of three lines to express the tonal value of the West-African "Ibo."²⁴

Even for the blind a special phonetic alphabet in Braille has been developed. It was devised by the blind phonetician, W. P. Merrick, and was published by the National Institute for the Blind in London.²⁵

Another field of language study which has been revolutionized by the

¹⁹ M. F. 1937, '38, '39, '40.

²⁰ M. F. Jan.-March 1938.

²¹ *Language Monographs*. No. XVI, March 1935 (cf. also W. F. Twaddell 'Phonemics,' M.f.D.U., May 1942).

²² M. F. 1930, p. 24.

²³ M. F. 1930, p. 38.

²⁴ M. F. 1937, part 2.

²⁵ M. F. 1938, part 2.

application of phonetic principles is the teaching of modern foreign languages.

Under the influence of the humanists of the 16th and 17th centuries the classical languages had gained a predominant place in the educational system of Western Europe. The vernacular was treated with contempt and the modern foreign languages found little or no attention in the schools. The young noblemen of England or Germany who wanted to see "the world" learned French from a private tutor by mere imitation and the businessman picked it up in the foreign country where he had business to do. When modern foreign languages were introduced in the schools of the European countries, they were taught as indicated above in the manner of Latin and Greek. During the last fifty years a thorough change has taken place, and today we are very systematic in the phonetic training of our modern language teachers in University and College. In addition to his college training the modern teacher of foreign languages travels as often as time, purse, and general circumstances permit, to the country where his professional language is spoken. Before the War the best universities in England, France, Germany, and Italy offered special summer courses for foreign teachers of modern languages. Our young teachers of Spanish today are the only ones who at present have a similar chance in America. They may take a summer course in Spanish in the University of Mexico or in similar institutions in South American countries.

An interesting point is or was the attitude of the teacher to the question of the spoken foreign language. In reaction to the old classical or rather pseudo-classical grammar drill method, the so-called direct method was advocated by Wilhelm Viëtor of Marburg and Max Walter of Frankfurt, and between 1900 and 1925 widely practiced. Its principle was the exclusive use of the foreign language in the classroom and the widest possible training of the pupil in the spoken form of this language based on a careful and systematic training in phonetics. The European countries were more fortunate in this respect as they had 6 to 9 years of high school work with 3-6 hours of linguistic training weekly at their disposal. Also in the United States, 30 years ago this method was preached by its most ardent pioneer, Max Walter, and introduced in many schools. But it was soon recognized that with an average of two years of foreign language teaching in our schools with commonly three hours per week such high-flying plans could not be realized here. In consequence of this the reading method was advocated, a method which was very successful in attaining the goal it had set up, the acquisition of a good reading ability in the foreign language with disregard for its spoken form. The present emergency has shaken many language teachers out of this somewhat onesided though useful dream, and in many schools where the reading method had been regarded as sacrosanct, the departments woke up to the realization of the fact that living languages

are spoken languages after all and that the command of the spoken form of these languages may be of immense practical value for military, commercial, and cultural reasons.

America needs modern linguists badly and not only for the so-called main foreign languages, French, German, and Spanish. This country was not language conscious before the war. Now every effort is made to remedy the situation. Mortimer Graves, Administrative Secretary of the American Council of Learned Societies, gives an interesting report on "Oriental Languages and the War Effort"²⁶ in which he discusses the "Intensive Language Program" in less-known languages of the Council. He informs us that under this program or in close cooperation with it instruction is now available—or soon will be—in Chinese, Portuguese, Japanese, Russian, Persian, Arabic, Turkish, Icelandic, Modern Greek, Swahili, Pidgin English, Thai, Burmese, Malay, Hungarian, and Hindustani at numerous universities and colleges. Professor J. Milton Cowan of the University of Iowa has been appointed national director of this intensified language program. In a special pamphlet Dr. Cowan lists the Opportunities for the Intensive Study of Unusual Languages during the Summer of 1942.²⁷

²⁶ *Asia Magazine*, June 1942.

²⁷ *The Intensive Language Program*, A. C. L. S. Washington, D. C., 1942 (May 5, 1942). Cf. also Mortimer Graves and J. M. Cowan, "Report of the First Year's Operation of the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies, 1941-1942" (December 20, 1942).

The German Noun Plurals

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(*Author's summary.*—The teaching of the plurals of German nouns can be facilitated by approaching them from the point of view of their structure as monosyllables or polysyllables on the basis of the nouns in the A.A.T.G. list. A classification of the nouns in the A.A.T.G. list according to their plural formations follows.)

THE formation of the plural of German nouns is not presented in very practical fashion by the majority of the elementary grammars enjoying current use and as a consequence the subject is a very annoying one for students who wish to master the art of reading German. The chief difficulties in the path of a more practical treatment seem to be the lack of common agreement as to the nouns whose plurals students ought to know and our inability to group the majority of nouns in classes or declensions according to any set of principles which can be taught effectively beginning in the first weeks of study and which correlate with other phases of the study of German.¹

It has been suggested that instructors use the vocabulary frequency lists as a basis for teaching some aspects of the noun.² It is, of course, obvious that the frequency of a given noun plural has no necessary relation to the frequency of the corresponding singular. But, for the moment, that is not important. It is, however, extremely important to teach such a perplexing matter as the plural of the noun on the basis of a concrete vocabulary instead of rather arbitrary principles frequently taken over without question from nineteenth century grammars and often quite fallacious. This concrete vocabulary the frequency lists provide and students are at work on it at a time when noun plurals strike them as most confusing.

One of the currently popular and always very useful devices for teaching gender is the systematic attention to the many noun suffixes such as *ling*, *tum*, *ung*, etc. which almost always indicate the gender. The same device is utilized in the systematic study of adjective and adverb derivatives. After a bit students so taught think of words more or less spontaneously in terms of monosyllables and polysyllables. Their tendency to do so particularly in connection with noun gender can be effectively correlated with the study of noun plurals in somewhat the following manner:

¹ See Lohstoeter, L. C. "A Device for Teaching German Nouns to Beginners," *Modern Language Journal*, XI (1927-28), 359-364.

² See Steckelberg, M., "How Erratic is the Gender of German Nouns?," *Modern Language Journal*, XXI (1936-37), 519-521.

I. Monosyllabic Nouns.

- 1) The vast majority of masculine nouns of one syllable have *e*-plurals.³ About half of these mutate the stem vowel in the plural.
- 2) Feminine monosyllables have either *en*-plurals³ (about two-thirds of the total) or *e*-plurals³ (about one-third of the total). The former never mutate the stem vowel, the latter always do.
- 3) About two-thirds of the neuter monosyllables have *e*-plurals³ and the remaining one-third have *er*-plurals.³ The former never mutate the stem vowel, the latter always do.

II. Polysyllabic nouns.

- 1) The bulk of masculine and neuter polysyllables are those ending in *el*, *en*, *er*. These have endingless plurals³ and comparatively few of them mutate the stem vowel in the plural.
- 2) The feminine polysyllables constitute by far the largest single noun group and with only a few exceptions they have *en*-plurals³ and never mutate the stem vowel in the plural.

Although this scheme is open to many exceptions as all such schemes are, it affords a practical basis for helping the student to master the confusing business of noun plurals including the matter of the mutation of the stem vowel, beginning already in the first weeks of instruction and in terms of a principle, i.e. monosyllable-polysyllable, which he is already accustomed to using. The frequently occurring exceptions such as *Mütter*, *Töchter*, *Wälder*, etc. can be mastered easily enough after the student has learned the general principles.

The A.A.T.G. list⁴ includes twelve hundred ninety-two (1292) nouns which are listed as key-words. I have, for obvious reasons, added the additional eighteen (18) suggested by O. Schinnerer in his review of the M.S.-G.V. list.⁵

The following five classifications, arranged in order from the largest to the smallest, show the numerical distribution of these thirteen hundred ten (1310) nouns in terms of their plurals⁶ and will, I believe, illustrate

³ The practice of referring in this way to the plural classes or groups rather than in the more traditional terms of "strong, weak, mixed declension" or "first, second, third declension" is more concrete and specific and hence more practical for teaching purposes. Although G. O. Curme's *Grammar of the German Language*, Macmillan, N. Y., 1922, laid the basis for an excellent American precedent in this respect, the elementary grammars have been rather slow in following it consistently.

⁴ W. Wadepuhl and B. Q. Morgan, *Minimum Standard German Vocabulary*, N. Y., Crofts, 1934 (hereinafter abbreviated M.S.G.V.)

⁵ *German Quarterly*, VIII (1935), pp. 93-94.

⁶ All nouns were classified strictly in accordance with the inflections attributed to them in the M.S.G.V. even when these inflections were questionable, e.g. the plural *die Böden* which both Duden and Muret-Sanders list as less preferable to *die Boden*; or *Glück*, which is listed as having no plural whereas *Unglück* is given with an *e*-plural; or *Überrest* and *Ursprung* which are listed as having no plurals.

the feasibility of teaching the plural of German nouns on the basis of whether an individual noun is monosyllabic or polysyllabic. Incidentally and in addition a systematic arrangement of the nouns in the M.S.G.V. list may prove useful to the profession for other purposes.

Group I: The n-plurals

[The (e)n-plurals (430 nouns¹) never occur with mutated stem vowel in plural.]

A. Three hundred three (303) feminine polysyllables.

1. Thirty two (32) with suffix *-ung*.

die Abneigung ²	die Satzung
Abteilung	Schöpfung
Ausstellung ³	Spannung
Benennung	Stimmung
Bestrebung	Übung
Dämmerung	Umwandlung
Einleitung	Unterredung
Festung	Veranlagung
Gattung	Verschwendung
Gesinnung	Verschwörung
Heizung	Versuchung
Ordnung ⁴	Verzierung
Regierung	Weltanschauung
Richtung	Zeitung

¹ This and all similar figures following include, besides the nouns listed, also the compounds given in the footnotes all of which are cited in the M.S.G.V. as key-words. They also include the eighteen (18) nouns suggested as additions by Schinnerer [GQ, VIII (1935), pp. 93-94]. These latter are indicated in the listings by a following asterisk.

The nouns or noun-forms marked ‡ in the footnotes are not included in the above figures since they refer to nouns or variations of nouns already counted.

² with the similar compound *Zuneigung*.

³ with the similar compound *Zusammenstellung*.

⁴ with its compound *Unordnung*.

2. One hundred ninety-eight (198) with suffix *-e*.

die Achse	die Aussprache	die Börse	die Ehe	die Farbe
Adresse	Backe	Brille*	Ehre	Flamme
Anklage	Beere ²	Brücke	Eiche	Flasche
Annahme ¹	Beine	Bühne	Epoche	Fliege
Anzeige	Birne	Dame	Erbse	Flotte
Apfelsine	Blume	Debatte	Erde	Freude
Apotheke	Blüte	Decke	Ernte	Gabe ³
Asche	Bohne	Ecke	Fahne	Gasse

¹ with the similar compounds *Ausnahme*, *Einnahme*, *Übernahme*.

² with its compound *Erdbeere*.

³ with its compounds *Aufgabe*, *Ausgabe*, *Übergabe*.

die Gebärde	die Kutsche	die Nase	die Schlange	die Tante
Geschichte	Lage ⁴	Nichte	Schraube	Tasche
Glocke	Lampe	Novelle	Schule ⁷	Tasse ⁸
Grenze	Lanze	Oberfläche	Schwelle	Tinte
Grube	Laune	Palme	Seele	Tonne
Gruppe	Leiche	Pause	Seite	Träne
Halle	Linde	Perle	Sekunde*	Treppe
Henne	Lippe	Pfeife	Seuche	Unruhe
Herde	Liste	Pflanze	Silbe	Waffe
Höhe	Lücke	Pforte	Sitte	Wange
Hölle	Lunge	Platte	Skizze	Ware
Hose	Marke	Posse	Sonne	Weise
Hülle	Maschine	Presse	Sorte	Welle
Hütte	Maske	Probe	Speise	Werkstätte
Idee	Masse	Quelle	Spitze	Wiege
Kapelle	Meile	Reihe	Stange	Wiese
Karte ⁴	Menge	Röhre	Statue	Witwe
Kasse	Messe	Rolle	Stimme	Woche
Katze	Miene	Rose	Strafe	Wolke
Kette	Miete	Rübe	Straße	Wunde
Kirche	Milliarde	Ruine	Stube	Würde
Klasse	Minute	Sache ⁶	Stufe	Wüste
Kohle	Mitte	Sahne	Stunde	Zeile
Krise	Mode	Säule	Summe	Zelle
Krone	Mühle	Säure	Sünde	Ziege
Küche	Münze	Schande	Suppe*	Zigarette*
Kusine	Mütze	Schanze	Szene	Zigarre*
Küste	Nachfrage	Scheibe	Tanne	Zunge

⁴ with its compounds *Wandkarte*, *Speisekarte*.*

⁵ with its compounds *Auflage*, *Niederlage*, *Vorlage*.

⁶ with its compounds *Nebensache*, *Tatsache*, *Ursache*.

⁷ with its compounds *Hochschule*, *Volksschule*.

⁸ with its compound *Unterrasse*.

3. Twenty-six (26) with suffixes *-el*, *-er*.

die Achsel	die Ader
Bibel	Faser
Formel	Feder
Gabel	Kammer
Insel ¹	Mauer
Kartoffel	Nummer
Kugel	Oper
Muskel	Schulter
Nadel	Schwester
Regel	Ziffer
Schachtel	
Tafel ²	
Trommel	
Wurzel	

¹ with its compound *Halbinsel*.

² with its compound *Wandtafel*.

4. Five (5) with suffix *-heit* (*-keit*).

die Begebenheit
Einheit
Gelegenheit¹

die Fertigkeit

¹ with its compound *Angelegenheit*.

5. Nine (9) with suffix *-schaft*

die Bürgerschaft
Erbschaft
Gesellschaft
Landschaft
Leidenschaft
Mannschaft
Wirtschaft
Wissenschaft¹

¹ with its compound *Naturwissenschaft*.

6. Ten (10) with suffix *-ie*.

die Energie
Familie
Harmonie
Industrie
Komödie
Linie
Partie
Phantasie
Photographie
Theorie

7. Six (6) with suffix *-ion*.

die Million
Nation
Pension
Religion
Revolution
Station

8. Three (3) with suffix *-tur*.

die Kultur
Literatur
Natur

9. Four (4) with suffix *-end*.

die Gegend¹
Jugend
Tugend

¹ with its compound *Umgegend*.

10. Three (3) with suffix *-ik*.

die Fabrik
Politik
Republik

11. Three (3) with suffix *-ität*.

die Qualität
Quantität
Universität

12. Four (4) with miscellaneous suffixes.

die Bibliothek
Existenz
Medizin
Partei

13. [Polysyllables ending in *-in*.

The many feminine derivatives in *-in* (plural *-innen*) are not listed as key-words in the M.S.G.V. and consequently are not included in this count.]

B. Fifty-five (55) feminine monosyllables.

die (An)dacht ¹	die Frist	die Schar
(An)stalt ²	(Ge)burt	Schicht
Art	(Ge)fahr	Schlacht
Au ³	(Gegen)wart	Schrift ⁸
(Aus)wahl	Last	Schuld
Bahn ⁴	List	See ⁹
Burg	(Nach)richt	Sicht ¹⁰
Flur ⁵	Null ⁶	Tat ¹¹
Flut	Pflicht	Tür ¹²
Form	Post	Uhr
Fracht	(Rück)fahrt ⁷	Welt
Frau ⁶	Saat	Zeit ¹³

¹ Parentheses are used to set off the non-essential parts of a compound from the point of view of its plural formation. Hence *Andacht* is classed as a monosyllable by virtue of the fact that it is a compound of *Dacht* (even though *Dacht* does not exist independently).

² with the similar compound *Gestalt*.

³ nominative singular also occurs as *Aue*.

⁴ with its compounds *Eisenbahn*, *Hochbahn*, *Laufbahn*, *Straßenbahn*.*

⁵ occurs also as *der Flur*, *die Flure* with different meaning.

⁶ with its compound *Hausfrau*.

⁷ with the similar compound *Seefahrt*.

⁸ with its compounds *Denkschrift*, *Handschrift*, *Inschrift*, *Vorschrift*, *Zeitschrift*.

⁹ occurs also as *der See*, *des Sees* with different meaning.

¹⁰ with its compounds *Absicht*, *Aussicht*, *Rücksicht*. For other *Sicht*-compounds see Addendum A, note 1.

¹¹ with its compound *Wohltat*.

¹² with its compound *Haustür*.

¹³ with its compounds *Hochzeit*, *Zwischenzeit*.

C. Thirty-six (36) masculine polysyllables with genitive, dative, accusative singular in *-(e)n*.

1. Twenty-eight (28) polysyllables in *-e*.

der Beamte	der Heide [‡]
Bote	Jude
Bube	Knabe
Buchstabe [†]	Kollege
Bursche	Kunde
Erbe	Löwe
Gatte	Neffe
Gefährte	Oberst [‡]
Gefangene	Riese
Gehilfe	Schütze
Gelehrte	Sklave
Geliebte	Vorgesetzte
Gesandte	Zeitgenosse
Geschworene	Zeuge

[†] occurs also with genitive singular *Buchstabens*.

[‡] occurs also as *die Heide* with different meaning.

[‡] from *der Oberste*.

2. Eight (8) nouns of foreign origin, with stress on final syllable.

der Advokat
Kamerad
Monarch
Philosoph
Präsident
Protestant
Soldat
Tyrann

D. Twelve (12) masculine monosyllables with genitive, dative and accusative singular in *-(e)n*.

der Christ
Fürst¹
Graf
Held
Herr²
Hirt
Mensch
Narr
Prinz
Tor

¹ with its compound *Kurfürst*.

² with its compound *Feldherr*; note that the singular of *Herr* ends in *-n*, whereas the plural has *-en*.

E. Seventeen (17) masculine and neuter polysyllables with genitive singular in *-(e)s*.

der Autor	das Auge
Bauer	Datum ²
Direktor	Drama ²
Doktor	Ende
Nachbar ¹	Gymnasium ²
Pastor	Interesse
Professor	Material ²
Untertan	Museum ²
Vetter	

¹ occurs also with genitive, dative, and accusative singular in *-n*.

² plural varies from stem of singular.

F. Seven (7) masculine and neuter monosyllables with genitive singular in *-(e)s*.

der Ahn ¹	das Bett
Nerv	Hemd
Schmerz	Ohr
Staat	

¹ occurs also with genitive, dative, accusative singular in *-en*.

Group II: The *e*-plurals

[The *e*-plurals (413 nouns) occur with and without mutated stem vowel in plural.]

A. Two hundred fifty (250) masculine monosyllables.

1. One hundred nineteen (119) with unmutated stem vowels in plural.

der Arm	der Dom	der Grad	der Knecht
(Au)tent)halt	Eid	Greis	Kreis ⁴
(Augen)blick ¹	(Er)folg ²	Griff	Krieg
Berg	Feind	Herbst	(Mitt)woch
(Be)ruf	Fisch	Herd	Mönch
(Be)such	Fleck	(Hin)weis	Mond
(Be)zirk	Flur ³	Huf	Mord ⁵
(Blei)stift	Forst	Hund	(Nach)druck
Blitz	Freund	Keim	Mund
Brief	Fund	Kerl	(O)heim
Dieb	(Ge)mahl	Kern	Ort ⁶

¹ with the similar compounds *Einblick*, *Üeblick*.

² with its compound *Miße(r)folg*.

³ also occurs as *die Flur*, *die Fluren* with different meaning.

⁴ with its compound *Halbkreis*.

⁵ with its compound *Selbstmord*.

⁶ also occurs with plural *Örter*.

der Park ⁷	der Schnitt ¹¹	Stoff	der (Ver)lust
Pfad	Schrei	Strand	(Ver)gleich
Pfeil	Schritt ¹²	Tag ¹⁸	Vers
Preis	Schuh ¹²	Teil ¹⁷	(Vor)mund ¹⁸
Punkt ⁸	Sieg	Text	Weg ²⁰
Reim	Sinn	Thron	Wein
Rest	Spalt	Tisch	Wert
Ring	Stahl ¹⁴	Trieb	Wind
Scherz	Stein ¹⁵	Tritt	Wink
Schild ⁹	Stern	Typ ¹⁸	Wirt ²¹
Schirm ¹⁰	Strich	(Ver)dacht	Witz
Schmied	Stil	(Ver)ein	Zweck
			Zweig

†⁷ also occurs with plural *Parks*.

⁸ with its compound *Gesichtspunkt*.

†⁹ occurs also as *das Schild*, *die Schilder* with different meaning.

¹⁰ with its compound *Regenschirm*.

¹¹ with its compounds *Durchschnitt*, *Holzschnitt*.

¹² with its compound *Fortschritt*.

¹³ with its compound *Handschuh*.

†¹⁴ also occurs with plural *Stähle*.

¹⁵ with its compounds *Edelstein*, *Schlußstein*.

¹⁶ with its compounds *Dienstag*, *Donnerstag*, *Freitag*, *Mittag*, *Montag*, *Nachmittag*, *Reichstag*, *Samstag*, *Vormittag*.

¹⁷ with its compounds *Nachteil*, *Vorteil*; but see also † *das Gegenteil*, † *das Urteil*, and † *das Vorurteil* under Group II B.

†¹⁸ also occurs with plural *Typen*.

†¹⁹ also occurs with plural *Vormünder*.

²⁰ with its compound *Umweg*.

²¹ with its compound *Landwirt*.

2. One hundred thirty-one (131) with mutated stem vowel in plural.

der (An)hang ¹	der Ball	der Chor	der Fuchs
(An)laß ²	Band ³	Damm	Fuß
(An)walt	Bart	Dampf	Gang ⁵
Arzt	Baum	Draht	Gast
Ast	Brand	(Ein)kauf ⁶	(Ge)brauch ⁹
(Auf)trag ³	Bruch	Fluch	(Ge)ruch
(Aus)druck ⁴	Bund	Flug	(Ge)sang
Bach	Busch	Fluß ⁷	(Glück)wunsch

¹ with the similar compounds *Vorhang*, *Zusammenhang*.

² with the similar compound *Nachlaß*.

³ with the similar compound *Vertrag*.

⁴ with the similar compound *Eindruck*.

†⁵ see also *das Band* (Group II, B).

⁶ with the similar compound *Verkauf*.

⁷ with its compound *Einfluß*.

⁸ with its compounds *Ausgang*, *Eingang*, *Jahrgang*, *Übergang*, *Umgang*, *Untergang*.

⁹ with the similar compound *Mißbrauch*.

der Grund ¹⁰	der Kranz	der Schluß	der Strom
Guß	Markt	Schoß	Strumpf
Hahn	Marsch	Schrank	Stuhl
Hals	Papst	Schuß ¹⁵	Sturm
(Her)zog	Plan	Schwung	Ton
Hieb	Platz	Schwur	Topf
Hof	Rang	Sohn	Turm
Hut	Rat ¹¹	Spaß	(Um)stand
Kahn	Raum ¹²	Spruch ¹⁶	(Un)fall ¹⁹
Kamm	Rock ¹³	Sprung	Vogt
Kampf	Saal	Stab ¹⁷	(Vor)wand
Klang	Sack	Stall	Wall
Knopf	Saft	Stamm	Wurf
Kopf	Satz ¹⁴	Stand ¹⁸	Zahn
Korb	Schatz	Stock	Zug ²⁰
			(Zusammen)stoß

¹⁰ with its compound *Hintergrund*.

¹¹ with its compounds *Geheimrat*, *Vorrat*.

¹² with its compound *Zwischenraum*.

¹³ with its compound *Überrock*.*

¹⁴ with its compounds *Aufsatz*, *Gegensatz*, *Grundsatz*, *Vorsatz*, *Zusatz*.

¹⁵ with its compound *Überschuß*.

¹⁶ with its compounds *Anspruch*, *Ausspruch*, *Einspruch*.

¹⁷ with its compound *Maßstab*.

¹⁸ with its compounds *Gegenstand*, *Mißstand*, *Übelstand*, *Vorstand*, *Zustand*.

¹⁹ with the similar compounds *Vorfall*, *Zufall*.

²⁰ with its compounds *Feldzug*, *Schnellzug*.

B. One hundred two (102) neuter monosyllables with unmutated stem vowel in plural.

das (Ange)bot ¹	das (Drei)eck	das (Ge)fäß	das (Ge)schäft
(Ant)litz	Eis	G(e)flecht	(Ge)schenk
Band ²	Erz	(Ge)fühl	(Ge)schöpf
Bein	Fell	(Gegen)teil ⁵	(Ge)schoß
(Bei)spiel ³	Fest	(Ge)hirn	(Ge)setz ⁷
Bier	Gas	(Ge)päck ⁶	(Ge)spräch
Blech	(Ge)bet	(Ge)rät	(Ge)tränk
Boot	(Ge)biet	(Ge)räusch	Ge)wächs
Brot	(Ge)büsch	(Ge)richt	(Ge)wehr
Ding ⁴	(Ge)dicht	(Ge)rücht	(Ge)wicht

¹ with the similar compound *Verbot*.

² also occurs with plural *Bänder* with different meaning. See also *der Band* under Group II, A, 2.

³ with the similar compound *Schauspiel*.

⁴ also occurs with plural *Dinger* with different meaning.

⁵ with the similar compounds *Urteil*, *Vorurteil*. See also *ider Teil*, *ider Nachteil*, *ider Vorteil* under Group II, A, 1.

⁶ with its compound *Handgepäck*.

⁷ with its compound *Naturgesetz*.

das (Ge)würz	das Licht	das Pult	das Tau ¹³
Gift	Los	Recht ¹⁰	Tier
Haar	Mahl	Reich	Tor
Heer	Mal ⁹	Rohr ¹¹	(Un)glück
Heft	Maß	Roß	Wachs
Heim	Meer	Salz	Weh
Jahr ⁸	Netz	Schaf	Werk ¹⁴
Joch	Öl	Schiff	Wort ¹⁵
Kinn	Paar	Schwein	Zelt
Knie	Pferd	Seil	Zeug ¹⁶
Kreuz	Pfund	Stück ¹²	Ziel

⁸ with its compounds *Frühjahr, Lebensjahr, Neujahr*.

⁹ with its compound *Denkmal*. The latter also occurs with plural *Denkmäler*.

¹⁰ with its compounds *Unrecht, Vorrecht*.

¹¹ with its compound *Fernrohr*.

¹² with its compounds *Frühstück, Grundstück, Kunststück*.

†¹³ occurs also as *der Tau* with different meaning.

¹⁴ with its compound *Handwerk*.

†¹⁵ also occurs with plural *Wörter* with different meaning.

¹⁶ with its compound *Werkzeug*.

C. Twenty-eight (28) feminine monosyllables with mutated stem vowel in plural where possible.

die Angst	die Gans	die Lust	die Nuß
(Aus)kunft ¹	Hand	Macht	Schnur ³
Bank ²	Haut	Magd	Stadt ⁴
Braut	Kraft	Maus	Stirn
Brust	Kuh	Nacht	Wand
Faust	Kunst	Not	Wurst
Frucht	Luft		

¹ with the similar compound *Zusammenkunft*.

†² also occurs with plural *Banken* with different meaning.

†³ also occurs with plural *Schnuren*.

⁴ with its compound *Großstadt*.

D. Thirty-three (33) miscellaneous polysyllables.

1. Three (3) masculines in *-ig* and *-ling* with unmutated stem vowel in plural

der König	der Frühling
Pfennig	

2. Five (5) neuters in *-nis*¹ and *-sal* with unmutated stem vowel in plural.

das Ereignis	das Schicksal
Gedächtnis	
Mißverständnis	
Verhängnis	

¹ plural *-nisse*.

3. The single masculine in *-at* with unmutated stem vowel in plural

der Monat

4. Twenty-four (24) masculines and neuters of foreign origin, most of which are stressed on the final syllable.

a. Nine (9) masculines with unmutated stem vowel in plural

der Abend¹

Apparat

Charakter

Kristall²

der Offizier

Ozean*

Roman

Senat

b. Three (3) masculines with mutated stem vowel in plural

der Bischof

Kanal

Palast

c. Twelve (12) neuters with unmutated stem vowel in plural

das Dutzend

Element

Exemplar

Instrument

Konzert

Paket

das Papier

Paradies

Prozent

Resultat

System

Talent

¹ with its compound *Sonnabend*.² occurs also as a neuter.*Group III: The Endingless Plurals*

[The endingless plurals (168 nouns) occur with and without mutated stem vowels in plural.]

A. One hundred and fifty-three (153) masculine and neuter polysyllables in *-el*, *-en*, *-er*.1. One hundred and eighteen (118) masculine polysyllables in *-el*, *-en*, *-er*.

a. Ninety-five (95) with unmutated stem vowel in plural.

der Apostel

Artikel

Beutel

Deckel

Engel

Enkel

Esel

Frevel

Gipfel

der Bogen

Brunnen

Busen

Daumen

Degen

Haken

Kasten¹

Knochen

Kuchen

der Becher

Berichterstatte

Bürger²

Einsiedler

Einwohner

Fehler

Fernsprecher

Finger

Gegner

¹ also occurs with plural *Kästen*.² with its compound *Mitbürger*.

der Gürtel	der Magen	der Henker
Himmel	Morgen	Kaiser
Hügel	Nacken	Kanzler
Kessel	Orden	Keller
Kiesel	Posten	Kellner
Löffel	Rahmen	Koffer ³
Nebel	Riemen	Körper
Onkel	Rücken	Leiter ⁴
Schenkel	Samen	Liebhaber
Schlüssel	Schatten	Liter ⁴
Sessel	Schinken	Meister
Spiegel	Wagen	Meter ⁴
Stempel		Mitarbeiter
Teufel		Neger
Winkel		Pächter
Wirbel		Pfarrer
Würfel		Prediger
Zettel		Priester ⁵
Ziegel		Ritter
Zügel		Schleier
Zweifel		Schneider
		Schriftsteller
		Sommer
		Stellvertreter
		Taler
		Teller
		Urheber
		Vorgänger
		Wächter
		Winter
		Zentner
		Zuhörer
		Zuschauer

³ with its compound *Handkoffer*.

⁴ occurs also as a neuter.

⁵ with its compound *Hohepriester*.

b. Sixteen (16) with mutated stem vowel in plural.

der Apfel	der Boden ¹	der Acker
Mangel	Faden	Bruder
Mantel	Garten	Vater
Nagel	Hafen	
Sattel	Laden	
Vogel	Ofen	

¹ with its compound *Fußboden*.

- c. Six (6) masculines and one (1) neuter which originally ended in *-en*, but which now occur in the nominative (in the neuter also the accusative) without *-(e)n*.

der Fels(en)¹

Friede(n)

Funke(n)

Gedanke(n)

Haufe(n)

Name(n)

das Herz(en)

¹ The following additional six nouns may occur with the same peculiarity, but they never occur in the plural: *der Nord(en)*, *Ost(en)*, *Süd(en)*, *West(en)*, *Wille(n)*, *Unwille(n)*. See Addendum A.

2. Thirty-five (35) neuter polysyllables in *-el*, *-en*, *-er*.

a. Thirty-four (34) with unmutated stem vowel in plural.

das Kapitel

Mittel¹

Rätsel

Segel

Viertel*

das Andenken²

Darlehen

Eisen

Examen

Gewissen

Mittagessen*

Verbrechen

Vergnügen

Wesen

Zeichen

das Abenteuer

Fenster

Feuer

Fieber

Gewitter

Lager

Laster

Messer

Pulver

Ruder

Theater

Ufer

Wasser

Wetter

Zeitalter

Zimmer

¹ with its compounds *Hilfsmittel* and *Lebensmittel*.

² with the similar compound *Bedenken*.

b. das Kloster, *-s*, die Klöster is the only neuter with a mutated stem vowel in the plural in Group III.

B. Nine (9) neuters with prefix *ge-* and suffix *-e*, with unmutated stem vowel in plural.

das Gebäude

Gebirge

Gefolge

das Gemälde

Gemisch

Gemüse

das Gepräge

Gewebe

Gewerbe

C. Three (3) feminines with mutated stem vowel in plural.

die Mutter¹

Tochter

¹ with its compound *Großmutter*.

D. Three (3) diminutives with unmutated stem vowel in plural.

das Mädchen¹

Märchen

¹ with its compound *Dienstmädchen*.*

Group IV: The ER-plurals

[The *er*- plurals (69 nouns) always occur with mutated stem vowel in plural where possible.]

A. Fifty-seven (57) neuter monosyllables.

das Amt	das Horn
Bild ¹	Huhn
Blatt	Kind
Brett	Kleid
Buch ²	Korn
Dach	Kraut
Ding	Land ⁷
Dorf	Licht
Ei	Lied
Fach	Loch
Faß	Maul
Feld	Nest
(Ge)halt ³	Pfand
Geld	Rad
(Ge)mach	Rind
(Ge)schlecht	Schloß
(Ge)sicht	Schwert
(Ge)spenst	(Sprich)wort
(Ge)wand	Tal
Glas	Tuch ⁸
Glied ⁴	Volk
Gras	Weib
Gut	
Haupt	
Haus ⁵	
Holz ⁶	

¹ with its compound *Vorbild*.

² with its compound *Tagebuch*.

³ occurs also as *der Gehalt*, *die Gehalte* with different meaning.

⁴ with its compound *Mitglied*.

⁵ with its compound *Rathaus*.

⁶ with its compound *Streichholz*.

⁷ also occurs with plural *Lande*.

⁸ with its compounds *Halstuch*, *Handtuch*, *Taschentuch*, *Tischtuch*.

B. Eleven (11) masculine monosyllables.

der Geist	der Mann ¹
(Ge)schmack	Rand
Gott	Wald
Leib	Wurm

¹ with its compounds *Hauptmann*, *Landsmann*, *Schutzmann*^{*}, which however usually occur with the plural *-leute*.

C. One (1) neuter polysyllable in *-tum*.

das Altertum

Group V: The s-plurals

[The s-plurals (7 nouns) never occur with mutated stem vowel in plural.]

das Büro	das Genie	das Hotel*	das Restaurant*
Konto ¹	Gummi	Kino*	

¹ occurs also as *Conto*.

Addendum A

Two hundred twelve (212) nouns which occur only in the singular:

die Abreise	der Eifer	der Grimm	der Lärm
der Abschied	das Einkommen	die Gunst	die Lebensweise
der Adel	das Entsetzen	die Habsucht ⁹	das Leder
das Amerika	der Essig	der Hagel	der Leichtsinns ¹²
das Angesicht ¹	der Februar	der Handel	das Linnen
das Ansehen	das Fleisch	der Hauch	der Mai
der Anstand ²	der Fleiß	das Heil ¹⁰	die Mark ¹¹
die Antike	die Flucht	der Heiland	der Marmor
der April	die Fürsorge	die Hilfe	der März
der Aufwand	das Futter	die Hitze	das Mehl
der August	das Gedränge	die Hochachtung	die Milch
das Ausland ³	die Geduld ⁶	der Hohn	das Mißtrauen
der Bedarf	das Gehölz	der Humor	das Mitleid
der Beifall ⁴	das Gehör	der Hunger	der Mittelpunkt ¹³
der Besitz ⁵	der Geiz ⁷	der Inhalt	die Mitternacht
die Beute	das Gelächter	der Jammer	die Moral
die Bevölkering	das Geschick	der Januar	die Mühe
das Blei	das Geschrei	der Jubel	die Musik
das Blut	das Gestein	der Juli	der Mut ¹⁴
die Butter	das Getreide	der Juni	der Neid
das Dasein	die Gewähr	der Kaffee	die Neugier
die Demut	das Gewölbe	der Käse	die Nachwelt
der Dezember	das Gleichgewicht ⁸	das Kilo ¹¹	die Neuzeit
die Donau	das Glück	die Kreide	der Nord(en)
der Donner	die Gnade	der Kummer	der November
der Durst	das Gold	das Kupfer	das Obst
der Drang	der Gram	die Landwehr	die Ohnmacht ¹⁵

¹ with the similar compounds *Aufsicht, Hinsicht, Vorsicht, Zuversicht*. See other *Sicht*-compounds under Group I, B. note 10.² with the similar compounds *Beistand, Verstand, Wohlstand*.³ with the similar compounds *England, Inland*.⁴ with the similar compound *Verfall*.⁵ with the similar compound *Vorsitz*.⁶ with its compound *Ungeduld*.⁷ with its compound *Ehrgeiz*.⁸ with the similar compound *Übergewicht*.⁹ with the similar compounds *Selbstsucht, Eifersucht*.¹⁰ with its compound *Unheil*.¹¹ nouns of measure which use the same form for both singular and plural.¹² with the similar compounds *Scharfsinn, Unsinn, Wahnsinn*.¹³ with the similar compound *Standpunkt*.¹⁴ with its compounds *Anmut, Hochmut, Übermut, Wehmut*.¹⁵ with the similar compound *Übermacht*.

der Oktober	die Seide	die Vernunft
der Ost(en)	die Seife	die Vervollkommnung
die Physik	der September	das Vieh
die Poesie	das Silber	die Vorliebe
die Polizei	die Sorgfalt	der Wahn
die Pracht	der Spiritus	die Weile ¹⁹
das Preußen	der Staub	der Weizen
die Prosa	das Stroh	der West(en)
der Putz	der Süd(en)	der Wille(n) ²⁰
der Rauch	der Tabak	die Willkür
der Rausch	der Tau ¹⁸	die Witterung
der Regen	der Tee	das Wohlgefallen
die Reue	der Tod	die Wolle ²¹
der Rhein	der Ton	die Wonne
die Romantik	der Trank	der Wucher
die Rückkehr ¹⁶	der Trotz	der Wuchs
der Ruhm	der Trunk	die Wut
der Sand	die Überlegenheit	das Zink
der Sang	der Überrest	das Zinn
der Sauerstoff ¹⁷	der Umfang	der Zoll ²²
die Schmach	der Umlauf	der Zorn
der Schnee	der Ursprung	der Zucker
der Schweiß	der Verbrauch	die Zuflucht
der Schwindel	die Vergangenheit	die Zukunft
		der Zwang

¹⁶ with the similar compound *Verkehr*.

¹⁷ with the similar compound *Wasserstoff*.

¹⁸ occurs also as *das Tau*, *die Taue* with different meaning.

¹⁹ with its compound *Langweile*.

²⁰ with its compound *Unwille*.

²¹ with its compound *Baumwolle*.

²² See Addendum A, note 11. Also occurs with plural *Zölle* with different meaning.

Addendum B

Nine (9) nouns which occur only in the plural:

die Alpen
Eltern
Ferien
Geschwister
Kosten
Leute
Ostern
Trümmer
Weihnachten

Addendum C

Two (2) nouns which do not permit of more regular classification:

das Klima, -s, -ata
der Sporn, Spornes, Sporen

The How of the Hyphen

LOUIS FOLEY

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(*Author's summary.*—The function of the hyphen is commonly misunderstood or ignored. Used with discrimination, the hyphen can facilitate reading, by marking relationships not otherwise immediately clear.)

PEOPLE would do well to get out of their minds, once for all, the notion that the so-called "mechanics" of writing or printing are *mere* mechanics. Unfortunately, of course, there are evidently a great many readers who do hold that view of what they consider "mechanical" details. Many writers have scorned such things as beneath their notice. This attitude, however, is not especially intelligent. It means that a person overlooks some items which are not so uninteresting when one looks at them thoughtfully. Moreover, it is an attitude which is not very helpful to anybody.

In so far as it amounts to anything worth bothering about at all, the physical make-up of a written or printed page follows a code which has gradually been formed through human experience. The system "works" because, being accustomed to it, we know what to expect. Its purpose is to aid in making the transfer of thought from writer to reader as clear, as easy, and as prompt as can possibly be. That is just what the thing is "all about"; there is no particular mystery in it as wistful searchers in handbooks often seem to imagine. To be sure, the system at times becomes complicated, much as do all modern industrial processes, and for the same reason, namely, in order to turn out efficiently a product easy to handle.

A few years ago, a patient and somewhat naïf statistician announced some rather startling figures to show how much ink printers could save by using just half as many commas. He seemed to have missed the point of the whole business. (Of course, complete cost-accounting might compute also the wear-and-tear on blue pencils, and the editor's time, required for eliminating commas from carefully-punctuated manuscripts, but we can overlook that for the sake of simplification!) Already there seems to be a tendency nowadays to use too few commas for thoroughly comfortable reading. Suppose (what is hardly certain) that the individual printer could gain a few cents' profit by omitting punctuation; where would be the "efficiency" if each of hundreds or thousands of readers be needlessly annoyed or retarded, or perhaps permanently misled, in his understanding of the printed result? Such a performance would be "efficient" in somewhat the same way as the giving of short weight would be for a grocer.

The true relationship between reading-matter on a page and its impression upon a reader appears very clearly in the effect of the hyphen. In order to see just what this symbol accomplishes, it is perhaps well to begin by noticing what an arbitrary and artificial thing we do when we write a

phrase or a sentence in the form of separate and distinct words. That is not at all the way people talk or think. What a vast amount of paper might be spared if all phrases were printed in solid type, representing the way they are spoken, or the way they sound when you read them aloud. The obvious paradox is that our apparently halting manner of spacing words, of shelling them out one at a time, not only permits more smooth and rapid reading but is well-nigh indispensable to any kind of reading at all.

Now the hyphen makes it immediately clear that the words which it connects are *not* what they would seem to be without it. If it were not there, the natural tendency of anyone (not knowing in advance what was coming) would be to take for granted that the two words stood in the ordinary relationship to each other that such words would ordinarily have. Most of the time, no doubt, the reader would presently or eventually discover his mistake. Meanwhile, however, the smooth course of reading would have been needlessly obstructed.

We may as well face the fact that dictionaries—as well as the “usage” which modern “authorities” seem to take so seriously—are not very consistent in the way they handle hyphens. On the one hand they are slow to recognize that a new compound has been formed, and on the other hand they make no logical distinction between hyphenation and the joining of two elements as a single word like *football*, *baseball*, or *schoolhouse*. Presumably the latter treatment would imply a closer union between the two words, but in most cases that would be difficult to demonstrate. We shall have something to say later about this difference of method. The important thing is to recognize the fact of a compound word.

As soon as a compound actually exists, it can be unmistakably recognized in two definite ways. In the first place, it means something different from what the separated elements might ordinarily express. In the second place, it is nearly always changed in *pronunciation*. Let us notice how this latter change takes place.

In English we regularly put an adjective before the noun which it modifies. Then, as we naturally speak the words, we always put the stress on the *noun*. So we say “a green *house*” or “a light *house*,” meaning respectively a house which is painted green, or a house which is “light,” either in color or in weight of structural material. What happens when these same elements are fused together to form a compound word? We say “a *greenhouse*” or “a *lighthouse*,” and immediately this shifting of accent creates a different mental picture which carries no suggestion of what the words would mean in the form of a phrase.

Consider, as to both sound and grammar, the common expression, “a going *concern*”; it means a concern which is going. Similarly, “a dining room,” if written without a hyphen, would logically be read “a dining *room*” and would mean a room which is dining, if anyone can imagine that. The completely different grammar and meaning—the indisputable fact of

a compound word—goes along with the different accentuation of *dining-room*. So it is with *writing-paper*, *eating-place*, *sleeping-bag*, *conning-tower*, *grappling-hook*, *landing-field*, and all other expressions of the sort. Even though hyphen-stingy typesetters may have accustomed us to reading some of these correctly in spite of their printed form, the principle involved is none the less clear.

A generation ago people spoke of going to "the high school"; that meant literally a school that was "high," by comparison with the more elementary grades. Nowadays the separate meaning of the adjective has faded out, and the definite sense of a new compound is marked by the pronunciation "high school." It has become a single word for a unified idea, and if it continues to be written as if it were two, that fact merely shows that our spelling does not always keep up with the realities.

Likewise, back in the days when some of us were in kindergarten, people said "root beer"; it was supposed to be a kind of "beer" made out of roots. At present that beverage seems to be always called "root beer," and it would be a safe bet that no one really thinks of "beer" in connection with it.

When the air-gun began to come into use as a new toy, it made more widely familiar a certain size of shot which was commercially indicated by the letters BB. They were pronounced, of course, the way we always pronounce initials—in a person's name for instance, or in A.A.A. or W.P.A. or W.L.W.—with equal stress on both. At the present time, however, the original meaning seems to have been forgotten, and one hears almost everyone say "beeb-y shot" or "beeb-y gun." While the question of a hyphen does not enter here, we can see once more how inevitable is the effect in English of fusing two separate elements into what is felt to be a unit.

It would be easy to gather examples from slang, which only shows the natural processes of language in crude and exaggerated form, but one specimen will suffice for our purpose. To say "a hot dog" would mean a dog that is overheated, as for instance: "If that dog doesn't keep away from the stove, he will be a hot dog." With the term "hot dog," however (which of course logically calls for a hyphen), it is doubtful whether anyone remembers any longer the old joke about butchers who ground up dogs occasionally in making sausage.

The wide differences in meaning which the hyphen can instantly and unmistakably indicate, along with divergent pronunciation, can be seen further by comparing "the word *picture*" and "the *word-picture*," "the word *order*" and "the *word-order*," or "sound *words*" and "*sound-words*." The last-mentioned pair of expressions form a curious contrast. By "sound-words" one means words which name, suggest, or have to do with sounds, words such as *hiss*, *rattle*, *thump*, *crash*, *bang*, or *murmur*. Obviously St. Paul meant nothing of that sort in his advice to Timothy: "Hold fast the form of sound words," any more than we do when we speak of "sound doctrine." This adjective "sound" comes from Anglo-Saxon, whereas the

noun "sound" (what we hear) comes from French. Their resemblance is just one of the many coincidences in language. Let us have the pun and be done with it; they are not the same word at all—they only *sound* the same!

Recently it fell to my lot to be puzzled for a good while by the phrase "foreign language teaching." In the absence of a hyphen, the context did not happen to make the meaning unmistakably clear. Was it foreign-language teaching (the teaching of a foreign language), or was it perchance foreign language-teaching (the teaching of language in a foreign country)? Both ideas were intelligible, but it made considerable difference which one was intended. Of course the statement could have been made fool-proof by using the longer but more idiomatic phrases just indicated in parentheses; this journalistic fabricating of compounds smacks of newspaper headlines and is greatly overdone. But a simple little hyphen in the right place would have been a great help.

There used to be a widely-circulated story about "the cost of a comma." As it was told, the government lost thousands of dollars through a slight typographical error in the publication of a new customs regulation, which had been intended to favor fruit-growing in this country by admitting young trees free of duty. As it got printed, so the story goes, a comma was wrongly placed after "fruit," so that "foreign fruit, plants, and" (whatever else followed in the list) came in without charge. What was *really* wrong, however, was that the hyphen was not there to show unequivocally the meaning of *fruit-plants*.

One other point about the hyphen is worthy of remark. Very often it is a much more satisfactory way of indicating a compound than is the writing of two words solidly together. For the latter method distracts our attention frequently by joining some queer-looking combinations of letters in the middle of a word. See what "*highschool*" would look like if it were so written. A striking example in a recent periodical, all the more conspicuous because it occurred twice within three lines of a narrow column, was the expression "nighttime."¹ This form seems to defy our ordinary phonetic principles. It appears to have a double *t* in the middle. Now, in English, we pronounce a double *t* just like one single *t*; "shott" or "gott" or "hott" would be pronounced just the same as in their orthodox spelling. Phonetically, *rattle* has no more "t" in it than *ratify*. Here, however, we have two *t*'s which actually are both separately pronounced, indeed a curious thing in our tongue. That is why it looks so strange, as it would not for a moment with the more appropriate method of the hyphen. Notice again the misleading visual impression of "parttime" for *part-time*, or "cutthroat".

After all, would it take very much more time or trouble to put in hyphens where they are necessary? On a typewriter, is it very much harder to hit the hyphen-key than the space-bar? If the result were only just a little bit easier for the reader, it might mean a real benefit for all concerned.

¹ Alexander Woolcott, "The Elwell Case," *Look*, August 13, 1940, page 26.

• Correspondence •

To the Editor of the *Modern Language Journal*:

Apropos of *Languages and the War Effort* by Major Francis Millet Rogers, U.S.M.C.R., in the May issue of the *Modern Language Journal*, I think that all language teachers will agree that language students are not prepared for the emergencies of this war as mentioned by the author. In fact it is most fortunate that there is even one man who is as well trained and as capable as Major Rogers. On the other hand, in what field were we as a nation prepared for war emergencies? It is true that specialists of some fields do not need the years of training a linguist must have to be an authority on military matters and institutions of any particular country. For that reason inadequate preparation in many fields can be remedied without great reflection on the teachers in those fields. We agree that much money is wasted in teaching foreign languages to people who take only two years in high schools; but suppose we allowed students to take throughout their twelve years preparatory education two years of mathematics or of English. In spite of the relatively large amount of time spent on these subjects our graduates are not specialists in either field. Yet shall we say the money spent on those subjects is wasted? We must always waste money if it is wasteful to give a student the opportunity to explore many fields to determine his interests and aptitudes. And yet that freedom of choice is a part of American democratic education.

Until now the language teachers have been expected to teach foreign cultures in the sense of literature, art and music. Most of our American students do not plan a military career. Most of them are educated for living and for making a livelihood during times of peace. They do most of their living under peacetime conditions. Many of them never know any kind of military training. They are not interested in the military institutions of their own country. Had the foreign language teachers foreseen the need of specialized training what support would they have had? How many students of languages in liberal arts schools would elect even one course in foreign military vocabulary or institutions? Students even now are saying, "What can I learn that will be useful to me after the war?" And as essential as this information is today I confess I can't see a lasting value for them in having an extensive knowledge of military institutions of other countries.

The need for military linguists should have been obvious first to the military men since they are practically the only citizens who concern themselves with defense planning, military problems and theoretical campaigns during times of peace. Moreover, I believe that it is in their field of education that this highly specialized linguistic training should and must be given in the future. I do not mean that all officers need such extensive training but it is logical that since they are interested in our own military institutions they would be interested in the military institutions of at least one country whose language they would study. A highly specialized language study and a thorough knowledge of both governments and military institutions should be given to a sufficient number of officers having special aptitude for languages to insure the proper contacts with all nations. Officers so trained should be given ratings and salaries befitting the importance of their work to the United States.

EDNA WHITSON

Anderson High School
Anderson, Indiana

• Meetings of Associations •

NEW JERSEY MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

THE ANNUAL spring meeting of the New Jersey Modern Language Teachers Association was held Saturday, May 8, 1943, at the Hotel Douglas, Newark, N. J., instead of at Rutgers University, New Brunswick, as formerly. The president, Miss Ada F. Dow of Atlantic City, presided.

Dr. Daniel P. Girard of Teachers College, Columbia University, gave the opening address on the *Teaching of Foreign Languages during and after the War*. Dr. Girard said that the government decried the lack of capable linguists in this time of crisis and had been searching for men to undertake trade and military missions whose knowledge of language went beyond the "umbrella of my uncle" of old grammar trained language students. Obviously, said Dr. Girard, there are many persons with an expert knowledge of several languages who have remained undiscovered. He cited the article "Teaching Languages in a Hurry" in the current number of the *Reader's Digest* to show what the government is endeavoring to do, with new teaching methods, to overcome this shortage. The language teacher cannot help but be a bit skeptical about the claimed results of this nine weeks' intensive course. This does, however, indicate the necessity for giving the boys who are going into the services a smattering of colloquial vocabulary which will enable them to carry on in whatever situation they may find themselves. Dr. Girard closed with an affirmation of everyone's belief that following the war we must return to the sound scholarship of former years as the only method of developing real linguists.

The second speaker was the distinguished anthropologist, Dr. Claude Lévi-Strauss of the Ecole Libre des Hautes-Etudes of the New School for Social Research, New York City. Dr. Lévi-Strauss came to New York from the University of Rio di Janeiro where he was one of fifteen French professors who were permitted to teach in their own language. In developing his topic—*Latin-American People—What High School Teachers and High School Pupils Ought to Know*—he stressed the physical similarity of the North and South American continents, the dissimilarity of their colonial and political heritage and the necessity for a complementary economy between the two continents. A thorough knowledge of the resources of each country, a complete understanding of its economic status as well as a knowledge of the different peoples are necessary if the Good Neighbor Policy is to operate after the war. Tremendous progress has been made in the past twenty years and the life of the interior of the continent has been vitally changed by the perfection of the aeroplane, but, due to her vital limitation of mineral resources, it will be several centuries before South America can be more than an agricultural country.

Mr. Roger J. Brigham of the Clifford J. Scott High School of East Orange was elected president for the coming year.

NEW ENGLAND MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION FORTIETH ANNUAL MEETING

THE FORTIETH Annual Meeting of the New England Modern Language Association was held in Boston, on May 7 and 8, 1943.

An informal buffet supper was served at the Hotel Vendome on Friday evening. The President of the Association, Professor Joseph H. Sasserno, presided, and introduced as speakers several of the past presidents of the Association: Mr. William B. Snow, First President and Founder, Professor Louis J. A. Mercier, Miss Edith M. Gartland, who read a letter of regrets from former president Charles W. French, Professor Marjorie H. Ilsley, Mr. Joseph

G. Green, Mr. Michael S. Donlan, and Professor Ruth E. Clark. Miss Raphaela Maria Plasmati sang songs of France, Italy, and Spain.

On Saturday morning, at 10 o'clock, three of the section meetings were held at Richards Hall, Northeastern University.

GERMAN SECTION

Chairman: Professor Francis M. Currier, Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Speakers: Professor Charles F. Barnason, Northeastern University

Goethe's Interest in Old Norse

Mr. Michael S. Donlan, Dorchester High School for Boys

Methods and Realities

ITALIAN SECTION

Chairman: Professor Antonio L. Mezzacappa, Northeastern University

Speakers: Miss Eugenia Solimando, Blackinton School

Francesca da Rimini nel teatro moderno italiano

Professor Reginald French, Amherst College

The Renaissance Minstrel

SPANISH SECTION

Chairman: Professor Samuel M. Waxman, Boston University

Speakers: Professor Guillermo Rivera, Harvard University

Gorostiza, dramaturgo mejicano

Mr. Donald D. Walsh, The Choate School

La Novela Criolla del Siglo Veinte

Luncheon was served in the University Commons, and was followed by a speech of greeting by Dr. Carl Stephens Ell, President of Northeastern University, who stressed the need in the present and in the post-war world of men possessing a language competency as an accompaniment of technical or professional skills. He was followed by Professor Ralph Barton Perry of Harvard University, who spoke on *The Strategy of the Peace*.

FRENCH SECTION 2:00 P.M. Richards Hall

Chairman: Professor David M. Dougherty, Clark University

Speakers: Mr. Joseph Staples, Phillips Andover Academy

Our Future Obligations as Teachers of French

Professor André Morize, Harvard University

Les Cultures Étrangères dans une Crise Mondiale

At the Business Meeting, which was held at the end of the morning session, an amendment to the Constitution was voted, providing the inclusion of the Editor of the *Bulletin* as one of the officers of the Association. Professor Charles W. French of Boston University was re-elected delegate of the Association to the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers. Officers of the Association for the year 1943-44 were elected as follows:

President: Francis M. Currier, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.

Vice Presidents: Robert M. Mitchell, Brown University, Providence, R. I.; Gertrude E. Myles, High School, Newtonville, Mass.; Ruth E. Young, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; Jeanne M. Low, High School, Manchester, Conn.; Robert M. Waugh, Hebron Academy, Hebron, Me.

Directors, three-year term: Waldo C. Peebles, Boston University, Boston, Mass.; Grace E. Weston, High School, Concord, N. H.; Louis N. Naylor, Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.

Librarian: Arthur R. Racine, Mechanic Arts High School, Boston, Mass.

Editor: Joseph Brown, Jr., University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn.

Business Manager: Frederick H. Osgood, Milton Academy, Milton, Mass.

Secretary-Treasurer: Edith M. Gartland, Teachers College, Boston, Mass.

At the conclusion of the afternoon program, members of the Association were graciously entertained at tea by the wives of the Modern Language Faculty of Northeastern.

EDITH M. GARTLAND, *Secretary-Treasurer*

• Notes and News •

"THE CENTRAL WESTERN"

THIS ambitious 25-page bulletin of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South, dated April, 1943, is the work of the indefatigable secretary-treasurer of the Association, Professor James B. Tharp of Ohio State University. It contains among many other features, a proposed new constitution of the Association and full reports of recent meetings of affiliated organizations.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT IN SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

DUE TO the decline in school population (6%) and the introduction of obligatory war courses in the last two years of the high school, there was a drop in foreign language enrollments of 16% in 1942-43 in comparison with the previous term.

Even Spanish, which heretofore showed a considerable increase, has been affected adversely. However, it is still well in the lead, exceeding the other foreign languages combined by over 5000.

Inasmuch as the fourth year of the modern languages has been declared a war course, an increase in enrollments may be expected next fall.

In the junior high schools there was actually a small increase, even though the school population declined 4%. In this division French is still in the lead, exceeding all the other languages combined.

Details follow.

Senior High Schools

	<i>September 1942</i>	<i>March 1943</i>		<i>%</i>
French	36,831	31,124	—	15
German	5,882	5,501	—	6
Greek	59	46	—	22
Hebrew	2,196	1,962	—	10
General Language	335			
Italian	6,575	5,434	—	17
Latin	16,276	14,455	—	11
Spanish	51,911	47,337	—	9
	<u>120,065</u>	<u>105,859</u>	—	16
Total Day High School Enrollment	217,156	203,291	—	6

Junior High Schools

French	20,942	19,589	—	6
German	1,303	1,242	—	4
Hebrew	43	77	+	79
Italian	3,055	2,865	—	6
Latin	1,871	2,101	+	12
Spanish	9,619	11,054	+	15
	<u>36,833</u>	<u>36,928</u>	+	$\frac{1}{4}$ of 1%
Total Junior High School Enrollment	124,282	118,945	—	4

THEODORE HUEBENER, Acting Director of Foreign Languages

OPPORTUNITIES FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS

IN THE other American republics today there is extraordinary interest in learning the English language and in knowing more about the United States as it really is, in contrast to the impression often received. To help meet the demand for instruction in English and at the same time to provide a vicarious contact with life in the United States, numbers of requests for North American teachers of English are being received from Latin America. Most of the opportunities occur in connection with cultural institutes or universities, although there are also occasional requests for teachers in secondary schools or for instructors who could assist in the national English teaching program.

Recognizing that the lessening of language barriers is one of the most effective means of bringing about a permanent basis for inter-American unity, the United States Government has included an English teaching program in its cultural relations activities. Since responsibility for the success of the program rests largely on the persons chosen for these posts, the work presents a real challenge for those instructors who have a basic interest in Latin America and a genuine desire to help meet the language needs of the Americas.

A candidate for a teaching position in this program should possess high professional and personal qualifications which fit him to serve well both in his capacity as English teacher and as unofficial interpreter of our country and way of life. In this connection the importance of a fluent knowledge of Spanish or Portuguese (or French for Haiti) can hardly be overemphasized, for that knowledge is essential not only for teaching techniques but also for close cooperation and association with nationals who speak little or no English. Other professional requirements include something more than a B.A. degree, several years of successful teaching experience, a technical knowledge of American English grammar, especially in its relationship to the patterns, syntax, and sounds of the Spanish or Portuguese languages, and such understanding of the historical and social background of the other American republics as is necessary to facilitate adjustment to the psychology and customs of the people with whom the teacher is to associate. Equally important is a basic knowledge of the culture, institutions, Government services, and mores of the United States, so that he may help make this country known in its varied aspects to the people of the other republics.

Few candidates, without special training, are fully qualified for positions of the type described. To meet the necessity for special training the University of Michigan, assisted by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, last summer established an English Language Institute which offered an intensive training course of eight weeks. This summer a similar course will be offered, with additional opportunity to receive training at a field laboratory under the direction of the University of Michigan at the Benjamin Franklin Library in Mexico City. A limited number of scholarships will be available at both Institutes to candidates who already can meet most of the requirements. The training school in Michigan will be in session for eight weeks, June 28-August 20, with a planned enrollment of about thirty candidates. The Institute in Mexico City will be in continuous operation during the year, training candidates in groups of six for a three-months period each. Teachers who can meet the foreign language requirements and who have the necessary academic background and teaching experience may apply for admission to the Institutes by writing the Director, Professor Charles C. Fries, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

To coordinate the various activities in the teaching of English as a foreign language and to permit the most favorable development and administration of the program as a whole, a central Committee on English Teaching in the other American Republics has been established in Washington. Represented on the Committee are the various governmental agencies and private organizations responsible for the direction and development of the program: Division of Cultural Relations, Department of State; Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, United States Office of Education; Division of Science and Education, Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs; American Council of Learned Societies; American

Council on Education; Institute of International Education. Inquiries regarding the program may be addressed to the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

PAN AMERICAN UNION "BULLETIN" ADOPTS SIMPLIFIED SPELLING FOR BRAZILIAN PLACE NAMES

ADOPTION of the simplified form of Portuguese spelling for Brazilian geographical names by the "Bulletin of the Pan American Union," may serve as a criterion for publishers of maps and gazeteers in the United States.

For some time, the Bulletin followed the old spelling for place names, even after Brazil had changed to the new version, because of publications in the United States which listed place names in the old style. However, now that the new spelling is definitely accepted in the whole of Brazil, the Bulletin will henceforth employ it in all Brazilian names, the May issue announces in an article by Annie D'Armond Marchant, assistant editor.

The simplified form of spelling will, for beginners in the study of Portuguese, be quite an advantage. But to embattled ranks of Brazilians who fought tooth and nail for and against the innovation, the new spelling system was a headache for seven years.

Four presidential decrees were issued in regard to the new adaptation of spelling. "Old-timers," to whom the change was nothing short of sacrilegious, presented a belligerent front to the encroachments sponsored by the Brazilian Academy of Letters and the Academy of Sciences of Lisbon.

The first presidential decree in the matter, issued on June 15, 1931, provided that for the sake of uniformity to the national language, the simplified form "shall be admitted by the government departments and educational institutions." The phrase, "shall be admitted," was immediately pounced upon and interpreted as making the new spelling optional, and the inter-usage resulted for three years in confused spelling. The president again took a hand, on August 2, 1933, making the new spelling obligatory in "all Government publications, in the universities, public schools, and all educational establishments under government supervision."

There was still a loophole for the old guard, since the imposed spelling applied only to government publications and schools, leaving the general public free to choose its own method. The press likewise was divided, some of the older established papers sticking firmly to tradition. So strongly did the cohorts of the old spelling carry on their fight that governmental favor was again won to their side, and when the new Constitution of July 16, 1934, appeared, it was not only written in old familiar spelling, but declared specifically, "This constitution, written in the spelling of 1891, which is hereby adopted in the country . . . shall be promulgated by the Executive Board of the Assembly. . . ."

There was a quick whipping over from the streamlined orthography, but the reformers stuck to their guns, resorting to hair-splitting of phrases. They contended that the expression, "which is hereby adopted in the country," referred to the Constitution and not to the spelling, and their obstreperousness finally won the day. The new Constitution of 1937 was published in the new spelling, and in February, 1938, the President issued the final decree which has held good since, making the new form not only the official, but the general spelling of the country.

Simplification was based upon a few principal changes, such as the omission of all silent letters, elimination of double consonants, elimination of the letters k, w, and y from the alphabet, and standardization of accents. Inasmuch as Brazil is divided into 20 states, one, alone of which is nearly three times the area of Texas, the redesignation of cities, mountains, rivers and other geographical landmarks has doubtless resulted in a map of strange appearance to devotees of traditional spelling, who preferred an extra letter or so in their country's language, so long as they could call it their own.

ALPHA MU GAMMA

A NEW chapter of the Alpha Mu Gamma National Foreign Language Honorary Society at the University of California, Berkeley, California, was formed recently. The installation took place at a dinner party at the Claremont Hotel. Dr. Edward Meylan of the French Department of the University of California presided with Virgil Durando, president of the new Omicron Chapter. Miss Eda Ramelli, National President, spoke on language and literature as the approach to other peoples, and welcomed the new members. Dr. Joel H. Hildebrand, Dean of the College of Letters and Science of the University of California, gave the main address with the theme of the value of the study of languages.

Five language departments of the University of California were represented by students and professors, and delegates from five chapters were present.

Reviews

PITTARO, JOHN M., and GREEN, ALEXANDER, *Lecciones Orales para Principiantes*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942. Price, \$1.00.

The effective approach to learning Spanish by oral and aural practice in the classroom is ably demonstrated in this text. It is designed for use in Junior and Senior High Schools, and it could well be used even earlier. The authors give twelve good suggestions as to practical helps and classroom procedure, an explanation of Spanish pronunciation, and expressions for class use. It is intended that Spanish be the language of the classroom.

The twenty-six lessons deal with numbers, classroom articles, names, the time of day, a bit of geography, dates, the weather, and daily happenings. They increase gradually in difficulty. Small drawings illustrate the lessons.

The section, *Acciones Diarias*, pages 55-62, presents in practice sentences one hundred twenty-five verbs needed in everyday experiences. There is a list of given names and one of numbers. Then an eight-page résumé of grammar and the regular conjugations, including reflexive verbs, completes the first section of the text.

The second part, *Cultura y Civilización*, presents information in English concerning Spain and the Spanish Language, Spanish America, Spanish contributions to world progress and culture, and the study of the language. Six pages of data and useful bibliography concerning Spanish history, geography, life, customs and literature in translation give good suggestions. Spanish words and music of six songs, the "little red hen" story in dialog, with exercises and word drills, and some simple verses for practice complete this text.

The conversational method, clearly explained, and the material, simple but interesting, should be inspirational to the wide-awake teacher of Spanish in the grades or early high school.

MELISSA A. CILLEY

Agnes Scott College
Decatur, Georgia

LÓPEZ, MARGARITA, and BROWN, ESTHER, *Aquí se habla español*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942. Price, \$1.20.

Stimulating and practical, this text accomplishes successfully its object to provide material for the actual speaking of Spanish. As the authors state, some months or weeks of study with a basic text are first necessary, in order that the students know verbs in their several tenses and other essentials of grammar. Then *Aquí se habla español* may be used advan-

teagously. Frequent reviews and vocabulary drills help to fix in mind the idioms and Mexican expressions. The authors state that there is enough material for three or four semesters, if it is used as planned. The memorization and dramatization of the scenes, with actual properties, is recommended. This is particularly successful with high school classes. Some modification can be made with college groups; also they will complete the thirty-three lessons in a much shorter time.

The subject matter is of general interest: daily activities, social functions, purchases, preparations for a trip, experiences in a restaurant, at the doctor's office, at a dance, and, in fact, almost every activity in which one normally engages. The dialogs are lively, interesting, and informative. Questions in Spanish, additional vocabulary to be used on the initiative of the student, and suggested activities to be carried out in Spanish are skillfully added to each chapter, in such a way that there is always stimulating variety to provoke lively conversation.

For exciting adventures in the use of Spanish and for originality in the presentation of interesting material, *Aquí se habla español* is a superior achievement. Attractive original illustrations by Leo Politi complement its literary artistry. This text presents a real opportunity and a challenge to make Spanish a vital, living experience.

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FUNKE, ERICH, SPANN, MENO, and FEHLING, FRED, *Kriegsdeutsch*. Easy Texts in Military German for Speaking and Reading. New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1942. Price, \$1.00.

The instructor who has to teach a short, intense course in military German will welcome this new book. The aim of these new courses is purely practical, therefore it is important that the student be introduced as soon as possible to the specialized vocabulary with which he will have to deal. In these war times this book will be found interesting even by those who feel they will have no special need for knowing military German.

It is, of course, possible to edit selections from fairly recent German publications—and this has been done—but the difficulty of grammatical constructions and vocabulary in this type of work makes it impossible to use such material until the student has acquired a more thorough knowledge of German. A graded reader such as we have here is much more practical in the beginning year of German study. It is too much to expect of a first year student that he learn a highly technical vocabulary in long, involved German sentences. Because of its simple style, this text can be used as a basis for speaking and understanding oral German. This point must be kept in mind when we are teaching German for its practical application, and not for reading purposes alone.

The book begins with short and easy anecdotes taken from Erich Funke's *Lustiges Deutsch*. Following these few pages are chapters of a more technical character. These cover such subjects as battles on land, sea and in the air, the questioning of prisoners, paratroops and panzer divisions, the sinking of the *Bismarck* and submarine raids.

The authors have kindly provided the instructor with questions and exercises based on the text. These are also a great help to the student in the preparation of the assignment. The exercises can be used either for oral work in class or as subjects for written compositions. There are two exercises which give examples of compounds of some basic word. They are given in sentences which are to be translated into English. I believe that there could be more of these exercises with profit to the student. German military terminology is full of compounds, and the student should learn to analyze them without resorting to the vocabulary as the line of least resistance.

The book begins with a chapter on "die deutschen Laute." This seems to me unnecessary, for no one would attempt to use this book in class without preceding it with some grammar

text, however brief. These pages could be put to better use, preferably by adding another chapter of German text.

The chapter on "Grade und Truppenteile" needs clearing up. It is sketchy and exceedingly inaccurate. In the listing of naval ranks (page 15), the authors translate "Oberleutnant zur See" as "sublieutenant," and leave "Leutnant zur See" untranslated. In the American navy, an "Oberleutnant" is a lieutenant (junior grade), and a "Leutnant" is an ensign. Then as near as we have equivalents, an "Oberfähnrich" is a midshipman of the first class, a "Fähnrich" is a midshipman of the second and third classes, and a "Seekadett" is a fourth classman. The non-commissioned ratings are also not accurate. The same is true of the army ranks.

The vocabulary gives excellent translations of the technical terms. In checking the vocabulary I noted that the word "Schütze," used on page 51, was omitted. On page 56 of the text the compound "Seekriegsführung" is used. The German sources which I have seen, including "Der grosse Brockhaus," use only "Seekriegführung."

"Kriegsdeutsch" is timely and presents its material in an interesting way. It can be covered easily in four or five weeks, and because of its simplicity, can be used in any first year course.

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